REPORT RESUMES

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EDUCATION AND TRAINING, PASSPORT TO OPPORTUNITY. FOURTH ANNUAL REPORT...TO THE CONGRESS ON TRAINING ACTIVITIES UNDER THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT.

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE

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THIS REPORT PRESENTS THE QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DIMENSIONS OF THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT PROGRAMS FOR 1965. FROM AUGUST 1962, WHEN TRAINING UNDER THE MANPOWER ACT BEGAN, THROUGH DECEMBER 1965, MORE THAN 10,000 INSTITUTIONAL, ON-THE-JOB, AND EXPERIMENTAL AND DEMONSTRATION PROJECTS WERE APPROVED TO SERVE OVER 625,000 PEOPLE. THE MANPOWER PROGRAM OPERATES IN ALL 50 STATES AND IN FOUR TERRITORIES. INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING IS THE LARGEST SEGMENT OF THE TRAINING PROGRAM. BY THE END OF 1965, APPROVAL HAD BEEN GIVEN TO 7,625 INSTITUTIONAL PROJECTS TO TRAIN 435,700 PERSONS, AND MORE THAN 345,000 HAD BEEN ENROLLED. IN ADDITION, ALMOST 3,000 ON-THE-JOB TRAINING PROJECTS HAD BEEN APPROVED FOR 104,000 MEN AND WOMEN, AND 164 EXPERIMENTAL AND DEMONSTRATION PROJECTS FOR 88,000 TRAINEES. THE TOTAL NUMBER OF PERSONS APPROVED FOR TRAINING EXCEEDS THE ORIGINAL GOALS SET BY THE CONGRESS FOR THE FIRST 3 YEARS OF THE ACT. MANPOWER TRAINING CENTERS HAVE BEEN DEVELOPED IN AN ATTEMPT TO SOLVE THE PRACTICAL PROBLEMS OF TRAINING MANY PEOPLE WITH DIVERSE CHARACTERISTICS IN A VARIETY OF JOBS IN AN ECONOMICAL MANNER. THE SKILL CENTERS PROMISE TO BE ONE OF THE MOST EFFICIENT AND FLEXIBLE INSTRUMENTS FOR MANPOWER TRAINING. THE OVERALL PERFORMANCE OF THE MANPOWER PROGRAM HAS BEEN SATISFACTORY. THE CUMULATIVE PLACEMENT RATE THROUGH 1965 WAS 74 PERCENT. THE APPENDIX INCLUDES 28 TABLES OF STATISTICAL DATA. THIS DOCUMENT IS AVAILABLE AS L2.3--1468 FOR 45 CENTS FROM SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS, U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON, D.C. 20402. (HC)

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EDUCATION and TRAINING

Passport to Opportunity

Fourth Annual Report of
the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
to the Congress on Training Activities
Under the Manpower Development and Training Act

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
John W. Gardner, Secretary

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
U.S.A.

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THE SECRETARY OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
WASHINGTON

March 31, 1966

Dear Sirs:

I am presenting herewith the report to the Congress on training activities under Part B of Title II of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended.

Last year's amendments to the Act provided the necessary impetus to the search for new methods to overcome the stubborn problems of illiteracy and hopelessness. The Manpower training program has successfully prepared for work thousands of unemployed and underemployed persons and has given them hope for a new and better life.

Sincerely,

John W Gardner
Secretary

The President of the Senate

The Speaker of the House

"As the son of a tenant farmer, I know that education is the only valid passport from poverty."

President Johnson, at the signing of
The Education Act of 1965

"In the Great Society, work shall be an outlet for man's interests and desires. Each individual shall have full opportunity to use his capacities in employment which satisfies personally and contributes generally to the quality of the Nation's life."

President Johnson,
Message to the Congress on Manpower
March 5, 1965

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Chapter I

The Manpower Training Act of 1965

When President Lyndon Johnson signed the latest amendments to the Manpower Development and Training Act last April, he summarized the accomplishments of the first 3 years of the program. The President said that the Manpower training program "has already proved itself decisively with a most impressive record."

The 1965 amendments to the Act added new capabilities for training and retraining men and women, permitting them to seize the employment opportunities provided by a growing economy. This fourth annual report is an account of the Manpower training activity of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. It evaluates the program, and suggests some new directions in Manpower education and training.

The Manpower Act was born to help combat an intolerably high unemployment rate and job loss partially due to technological change. It has matured to become a vital tool in meeting the problems and challenges of a full-employment economy.

We are haunted no longer by the specter of a chronic and insurmountable unemployment rate dooming millions to a life of involuntary idleness in poverty, family disorganization, and personal deterioration of spirit.

In this 20th anniversary year of the Employment Act of 1946, we are confident that indeed we can have full employment. A few months ago, we reached the "interim goal"—as President John Kennedy called it—of a 4 percent unemployment rate. The present rate of 3.7 percent, though not the final goal, is a heartening advance against the high and stubbornly persistent unemployment rate of more than 7 percent 5 years ago. As the Nation now presses home its drive on the remaining hard-core pockets of unused and wasted manpower, our training resources must be used well to teach the skills of the new economy.

It has been demonstrated that prudent and determined fiscal and monetary policy can make the economy grow. This has been the major source of the millions of new jobs which have been created in the last 5 years. Manpower training, to be sure, has aided many thousands of men and women to get better jobs sooner than they could have otherwise.

The momentum of economic growth and technological change has created new jobs, many at new and higher levels of skill, for which there is a serious manpower shortage. At stake now is the capacity to provide the necessary job skills demanded by growth. Manpower training has only one role, albeit an important role, to play in solving this problem.

There are may other unmet needs in America. The requirements of the growing population for more goods, the cry of the cities for renewal and rehabilitation, and a decent standard of living for all citizens will demand a tremendous productive effort. The economic challenges which for nearly two centuries have absorbed the energies of Americans, among them millions of immigrants, have not disappeared. Demands for performance of new kinds of work and higher levels of skill in older occupations require versatility and excellence.

The Manpower Act was designed as a flexible instrument of our national manpower policy. To maintain that policy, many different factors and their interrelationship must be considered. These include the mobility of the working population, the role and pace of technology and automation, educational and training opportunities, and occupational trends. The current "state of the Union" with respect to manpower, has been described in *The President's Manpower Report,* published in March 1965.

The Secretary of Labor has broad responsibilities under the Act. The Department of Labor's Bureau of Employment Security, through the U.S. Employment Service, certifies training needs; selects, tests, and counsels trainees; and supervises their job placement when they have completed training. These activities, as well as the Labor Department's programs in manpower research, are reported annually to the Congress by the Secretary of Labor.

The Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare is responsible under the Manpower Act for training when classroom instruction is involved—whether in the usual institutional projects or in the experimental and demonstration projects—including instruction conducted in schools or in shops to supplement on-the-job training. This ranges from basic education and preoccupational training to skill training. The Department's Office of Education administers the program through agreements with State vocational education agencies, which arrange for training in private or public schools and technical institutes.

The most impressive single fact which has emerged in the last 3½ years of Manpower training experience is the establishment of a new, and long-needed dimension to American education. That is, there has developed a concrete, practical program of education and training which has preserved—so far—flexibility, capacity for innovation, and an alertness in adjusting the means of training to the ends of training.

Manpower training takes place in a wide range of facilities, and makes good use of many supportive noneducational agencies. The hard reality of skill competence, tested quickly in the marketplace, sets its standards and controls its values.

Vested interests, traditional—but unproductive—ways, and other artificial barriers to education and training are beginning to yield to the needs of people. Every educational problem from literacy training to personality development, from motivation of those adults and youth who have despaired of education to teaching them the theory and practice of a skill, are met in Manpower training and all may be included in one training project.

Compared to all of the other elements of American education, the program is modest in scale. Beyond its primary aim of fitting unemployed or underemployed men and women for jobs they need and want—but otherwise could not get—the Manpower training program is helping to set some educational precedents. And it is contributing to the new winds of creativity that are blowing throughout America's educational structure.

Prominent Features of the Act

The Manpower Act provides payment of allowances to trainees and thus makes it financially possible for them to devote full time to education and training.

The Manpower Act has taken the first steps to recognize the needs of that segment of the population least prepared for useful employment, by establishing multiple-occupation projects and training programs for entry level and semi-skilled occupations, as well as advanced skill training for those able to pursue it.

The Manpower Act has forced the recognition of the need to improve communication, computation, and reading skills for large numbers of unemployed and underemployed people.

The Manpower Act has shown concern with the nonmotivated, the partially motivated, and the people without occupational direction or hope. One of its prime efforts is to give trainees clear, realistic, occupational objectives and the training to achieve them.

Cooperation With Other Agencies

Local Manpower training project directors must cooperate with representatives of community agencies and action groups to gain a better awareness of the plight, the aspirations, and the needs of the underprivileged, whether young school dropouts, minority group members, the underemployed, or prison inmates. Coordination should improve with a new plan adopted by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and other appropriate Federal agencies. (See chapter IX).

The Manpower Act has demonstrated an effective and sustained program of cooperative occupational preparation of people who are counseled, tested, and referred by noneducational agencies (the State employment services) to professional educators for the necessary training, after which the trainees return to the employment service for job placement.

The Manpower Act provides flexibility to work with trade associations, private schools, labor unions, and employers as well as with State and local vocational education agencies.

The success of the Manpower training program has helped to mute the familiar cry of "Federal control," and the program is now well accepted by most State vocational education officials and those local vocational education officials who have operated projects.

The concept of creative federalism is becoming a reality in the Manpower program.

Teachers for Occupational Education and Training

The program has provided opportunities for promotion and a proving ground for future leadership in vocational education, in basic education, and in counseling.

Many outstanding teachers and counselors come from the public and private schools, but Manpower training has demonstrated that experienced instructors from industry provide first-rate training in an institutional setting as well as related instruction in on-the-job training in plants.

Manpower Program Offerings

The Manpower program trains for the needs of the community as the employment service surveys identify them. There is a built-in flexibility to accommodate demands of the labor market and to adjust to technological change. This flexibility has expanded the range of occupational training. People have been trained for jobs in more than 600 different occupations.

Combined—or coupled—institutional and on-the-job training projects have proved that the training of workers for entry level jobs is economically feasible.

Manpower occupational training is keyed to the desires of business, services, and industry in instructional scope and content. In most cases, it is up to date in the quality and quantity of tools, equipment, and supplies. It is as responsive as possible to trainee and job needs in hours of operation, length of training, instructor identification, and selection factors. In some places, advisory groups are established for various occupational skills taught in institutional training.

The Manpower program has demonstrated that it can conduct skill upgrading effectively (as it has for some companies and trade unions) during any part of the day, at any time of the year, and for a length of time as compressed or expanded as is necessary to conform to industry requirements.

Innovations and Experiments

Manpower training courses have proved that various occupational levels, from technical to subprofessional, and skilled to semiskilled, can be offered successfully under one roof without lowering either the quality of instruction or job and professional standards.

Manpower training has encouraged experimentation with a wide variety of new techniques, equipment, and teaching methods. Various systems for teaching literacy are used, as are different combinations of programed materials. Team teaching and group counseling are also used.

The Manpower program has encouraged experimental development of materials for remedial work in language and mathematical skills, as well as in occupational training. It has revived the job-related approach to basic education.

Manpower training has developed new approaches in curricula. For example, in some areas curriculum specialists work closely with advisory group representatives and instructors, and even observe workers on their jobs to help achieve a better comprehension of what is needed. Courses are updated and changed in emphasis, content, or in length, on the basis of reports provided by the employers who hired recent graduates of the program.

After 3½ years of experience with the Manpower Act, this report can only be indicative of the new dimensions in training services the Act has brought to the educational scene. This report points to the main features and contributions of the Manpower program and reviews some of the yet unfinished business.

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DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE USA

Chapter II

The Manpower Program in Perspective—1965

The purpose of this chapter is to present the quantitative dimensions of the Manpower program. A qualitative report of Manpower education and training is contained in succeeding chapters.

Overall Magnitude of Training Under the Manpower Act

From August 1962, when training under the Manpower Act began, through December 1965, more than 10,000 projects (institutional, on-the-job, and experimental and demonstration) were approved, to serve over 625,000 people. The Manpower program operates in all 50 States and in 4 territories. Institutional training is the largest segment of the training program. By the end of 1965, approval had been given to 7,625 institutional projects, to train 435,700 persons and more than 345,000 had been enrolled. In addition, almost 3,000 on-the-job training projects had been approved for 104,000 men and women, and 164 experimental and demonstration projects for 88,000 trainees. The total number of persons approved for training exceeds the original goals set by the Congress for the first 3 years of the Act.

Manpower Program Dimensions in 1965—Characteristics of Trainees

More than 35 percent of the total institutional projects approved to date under the Manpower Act were approved in 1965—almost 2,800 projects. During 1965, institutional programs enrolled approximately 125,000 trainees, a 25-percent increase over 1964. Detailed information on the characteristics of the new trainees reveals an increase in the enrollment of persons with little formal education, an increase in the enrollment of youth and an improvement in serving minorities. New occupations were added for training, and there was a better record of job placement for those who completed institutional training programs.

Male-Female Ratios

The proportion of males to females in Manpower training has remained 60 to 40, roughly the same as their ratio among the labor force unemployed. The following table shows a slight increase in the proportion of women among the unemployed.

Table 1.—Proportion of Males and Females Among the Labor Force Unemployed

	1963	1964	1965
Male	60.9	58.6	57.3
Female	39.1	41.4	42.7

Salad preparation is one of many courses taught in this Vermont cook and chef training class.

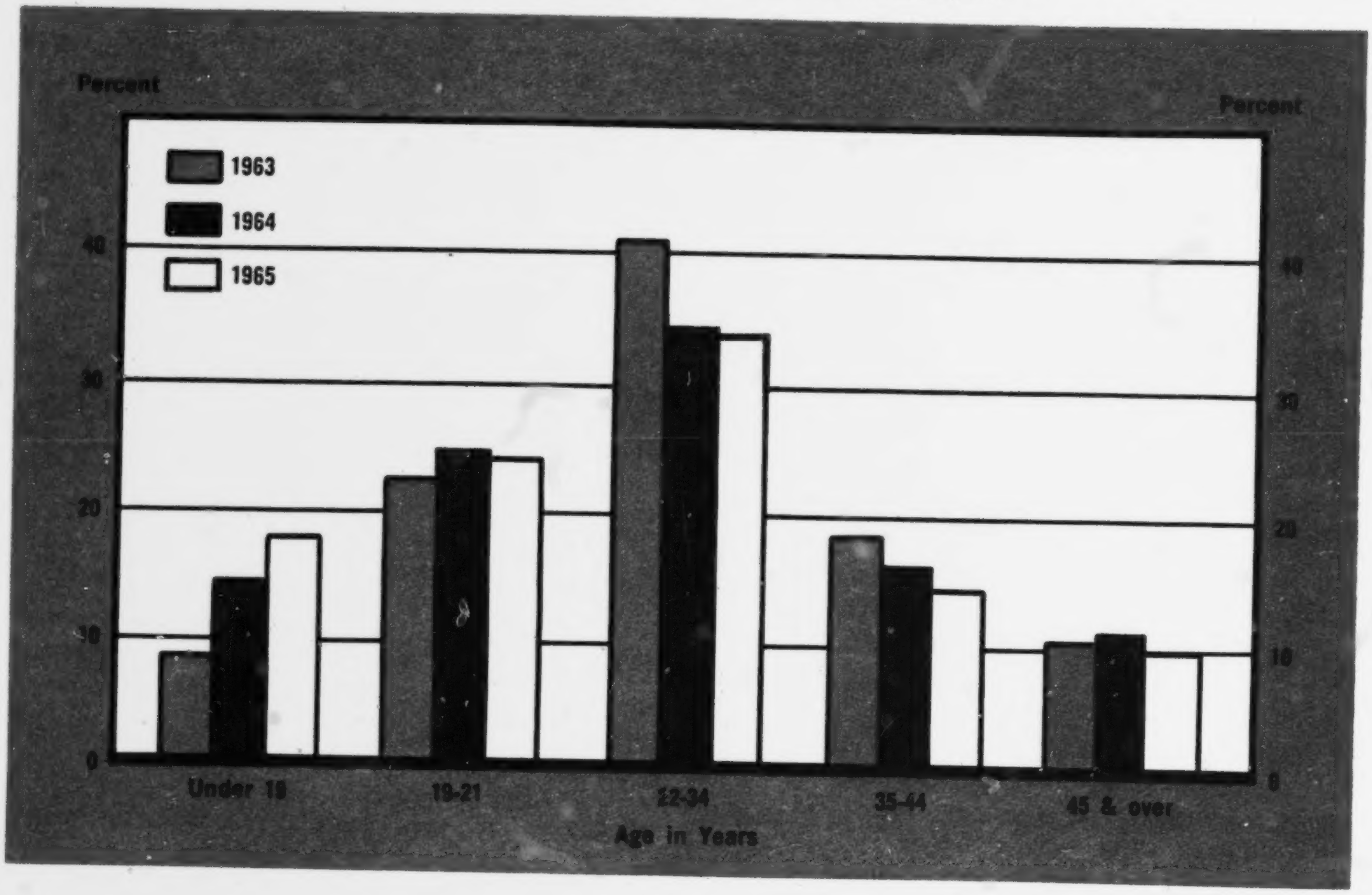


Figure 1.—Age of trainees enrolled in institutional projects.

Distribution by Age

An increasing number of youths, the age group with the highest rate of unemployment, have been enrolled. Those enrolled in the prime working ages (22–44 years) represent less than half of the trainees, down from 59 percent in 1963, and from 50 percent in 1964, but the percentages are well above the percentage of this age group among the unemployed. Trainees 45 years of age or older continue to account for just over 10 percent of the total, but this age group comprised 25 percent of all unemployed during 1965. Figure 1 represents the distribution by age.

Educational Attainment

In 1965 the Manpower program continued to draw into training more of the unemployed with low levels of educational attainment. The people in this group are more difficult to train or retrain, the most likely to need remedial or basic education before occupational training, and tend to present problems in achieving the motivation necessary to success. Individuals with less than an eighth grade education represent more than 18 percent of the Nation's unemployed. They present the greatest challenge to training.

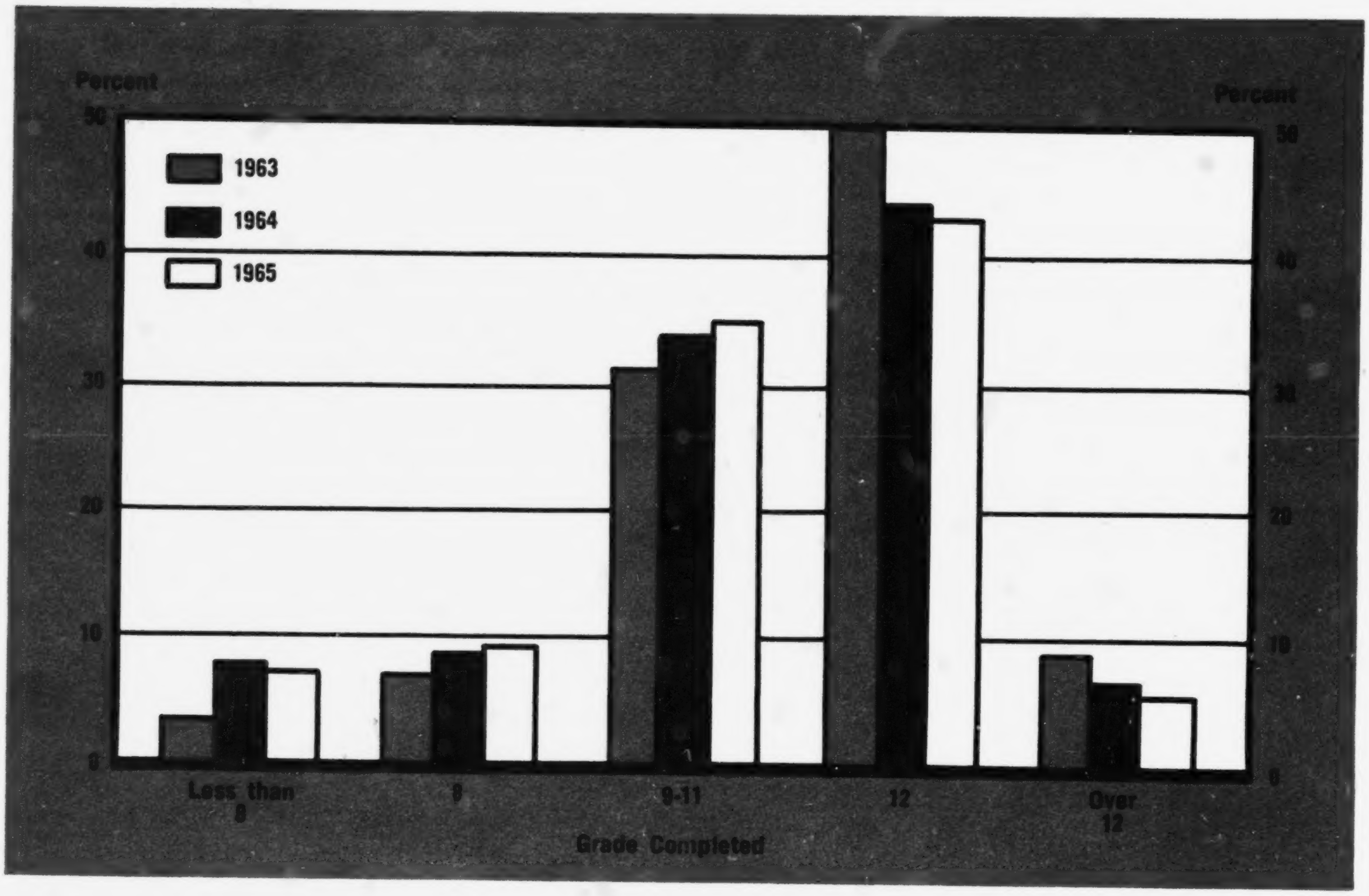
Seven percent of the trainees enrolled in 1965 had less than an eighth grade education, compared with 3 percent of those enrolled in 1963. The largest increase in the percentage of trainees with less than a grade-school education took place in 1964, the year in which the provision for basic education first became operational.

Figure 2 represents yearly comparisons of the educational attainment of trainees enrolled. (Also see appendix tables B–2 and B–3.)

Employment Status at Time of Enrollment

Eighty-six percent of the trainees enrolled in 1965 were unemployed at the time of enrollment, forty-four percent had been unemployed 15 weeks or longer. The proportion of the unemployed among the trainees was down slightly from 1964 (89.5 percent) and from 1963 (91 percent). The decrease, however, may be more apparent than real because of a better identification of reentrants to the labor force, for example, women

Figure 2.—Highest grade of school completed by enrollees in institutional projects.



who return to work after a long absence or persons who return after retirement. These reentrants, in need of training, numbered 3.6 percent of Manpower enrolles in 1965. More than 8 percent of Manpower trainees were underemployed at the time of enrollment, and 2 percent were family farmworkers.

The institutional trainees enrolled who are classed as long-term unemployed (15 weeks or longer) and as the hard-core unemployed (27 weeks or longer) comprise larger percentages than either group represents in the total labor force unemployed. The program continues to make a special effort to serve those with long periods of joblessness. Figure 3 illustrates the degree to which the Manpower program is successful in this effort.

Years of Gainful Employment

An analysis of the work histories showed that 57 percent of all trainees enrolled in 1965 reported 3 or more years of gainful employment. This represented a decline of 5 percent from those reporting a similar work experience in 1964. The decline was due to the increased number of youth enrolled who had little or no previous work experience and to the lowering of the work experience requirement from 3 to 2 years to qualify for a regular training allowance.

Twice as many men (28 percent) as women (14 percent) had more than 10 years work experience. More than half of the women (52 percent) had been employed less than 3 years but only 36 percent of the men had such limited work experience.

Family Status

The primary aim of the Manpower program is to train the unemployed heads of households and they account for more than half the trainees. Of the trainees under 19 years of age, 10 percent are heads of households. Of the trainees in the 19–21 range, 31 percent are heads of households. Approximately 75 percent of the trainees over 21 years of age are heads of households.

Occupational Training

Institutional training classes have been conducted in more than 600 different occupations. The classes cover a range from preoccupational basic work skills to semi-professional and technical

The typing and office skills learned in classes will enable this trainee to get a good job.

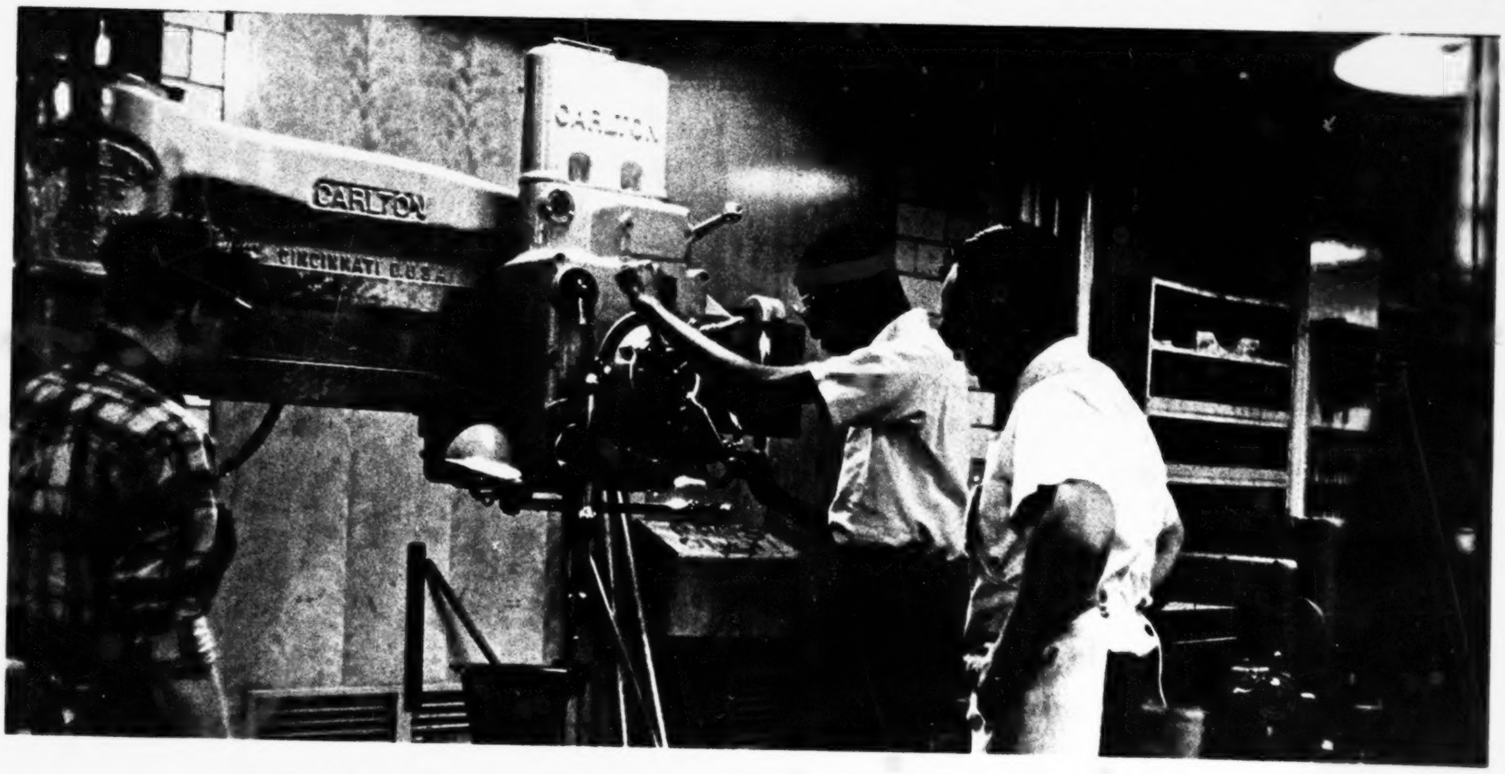
skills. Forty-three percent of the men who enrolled in projects that started during 1965 were being trained within the broad classification of skilled occupations. Forty-two percent of the women were enrolled in clerical training courses and an additional 25 percent were enrolled in various service occupation training courses, such as first aid attendant, nurse's aide, or waitress.

Institutional training projects are upgrading work skills and are providing usable entry skills for the unemployed. Before entering training, only 2.3 percent of the trainees had performed work considered to be professional, semi-professional, technical, or managerial in nature. During 1965, the enrollment of Manpower trainees in courses so classified was 9.1 percent. Table 2 illustrates the significant increase in the number of trainees undergoing instruction to become skilled, semi-skilled, or office workers.

Table 2.—Pretraining and Training Occupations of Enrollees in MDTA Institutional Projects, 1965

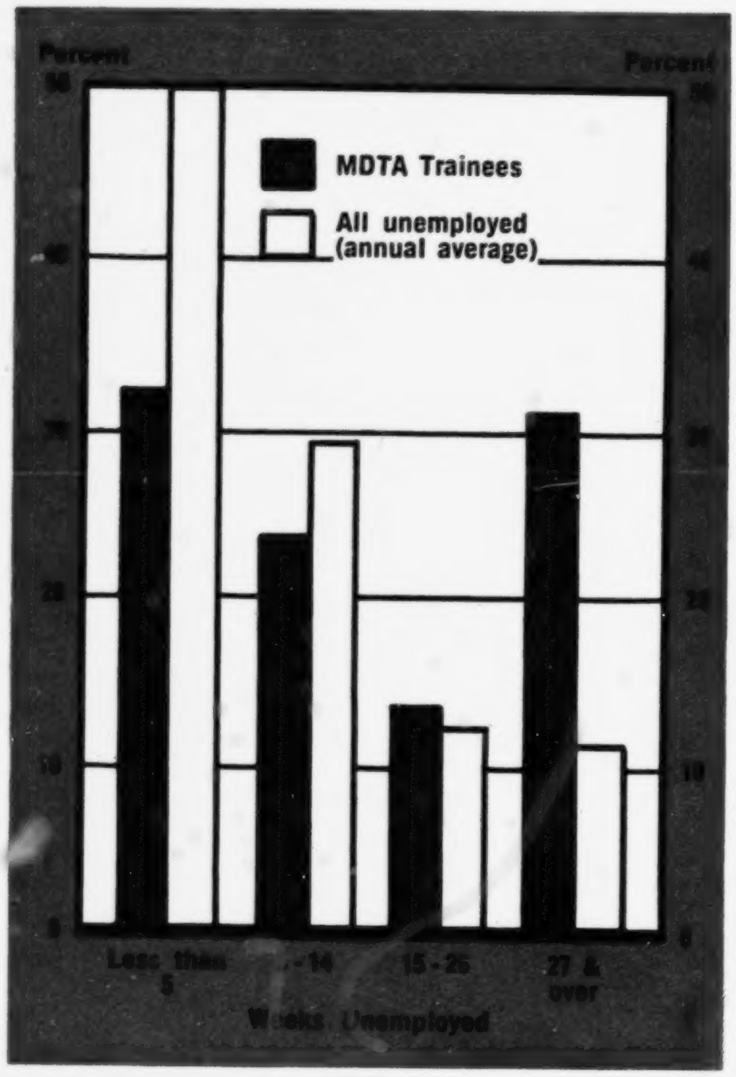
Major occupational group (percentage distribution)	Occupations of all enrollees	
	Pretraining	Training
Total	100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial	2.3	9.1
Clerical and sales	14.0	21.2
Service	17.2	13.7
Agriculture	4.8	3.4
Skilled	5.6	26.4
Semi-skilled	14.5	17.2
Other	15.3	9.1
No previous experience or reentrant to labor force	19.4	----------
Previous experience not reported	6.8	----------

Forty-four percent of the 15,000 trainees who previously were employed in semi-skilled jobs were



Student learns to operate large drill press in one of the skilled occupation shops.

Figure 3.—Duration of unemployment of Manpower trainees enrolled in 1965 and of persons in the labor force unemployed in 1965.



being trained for skilled work. Nearly two-thirds of the 16,000 previously engaged in unskilled work enrolled in courses leading to skilled or semi-skilled jobs. More upgrading of skill has taken place for men and women, white and nonwhite, than in previous years.

There is also evidence of upgrading within a general occupational grouping. More than one-half of the women, who worked previously as salesladies, are now training for secretarial or clerical work, and nearly 75 percent of those previously engaged in clerical occupations are upgrading their office skills. Table 3 shows evidence of this.

Geographical Distribution

The enrollment of trainees in the Manpower program tends to concentrate, as might be expected, in States with large populations and large industrial establishments. California has the most Manpower trainees. It accounts for 9 percent of those enrolled in institutional training during 1965, and for 8.5 percent of all enrollees since the beginning of the program. The next highest concentration of enrollees is in the five highly industrial States bordering the Great Lakes—New York, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and Ohio. (See fig. 4.) Thirty percent of all persons enrolled reside in these five States.

Table 3.—Percentage Distribution of Present Occupational Training of Enrollees Previously Working in Semi-skilled and Unskilled Jobs

Training occupation	Pretraining occupation					
	Semi-skilled	Unskilled				
		Total	Men	Women	White	Non-white
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial	5.3	4.9	4.4	7.7	6.5	1.9
Clerical and sales	8.9	8.7	2.4	40.9	8.5	9.7
Service	7.3	9.9	6.3	28.0	8.2	13.0
Agriculture	1.6	2.2	2.6	.1	1.8	2.6
Skilled	44.2	38.7	45.8	2.8	42.6	32.0
Semi-skilled	26.7	24.7	27.0	12.7	23.6	26.5
Other	5.9	10.9	11.5	7.7	8.7	14.4

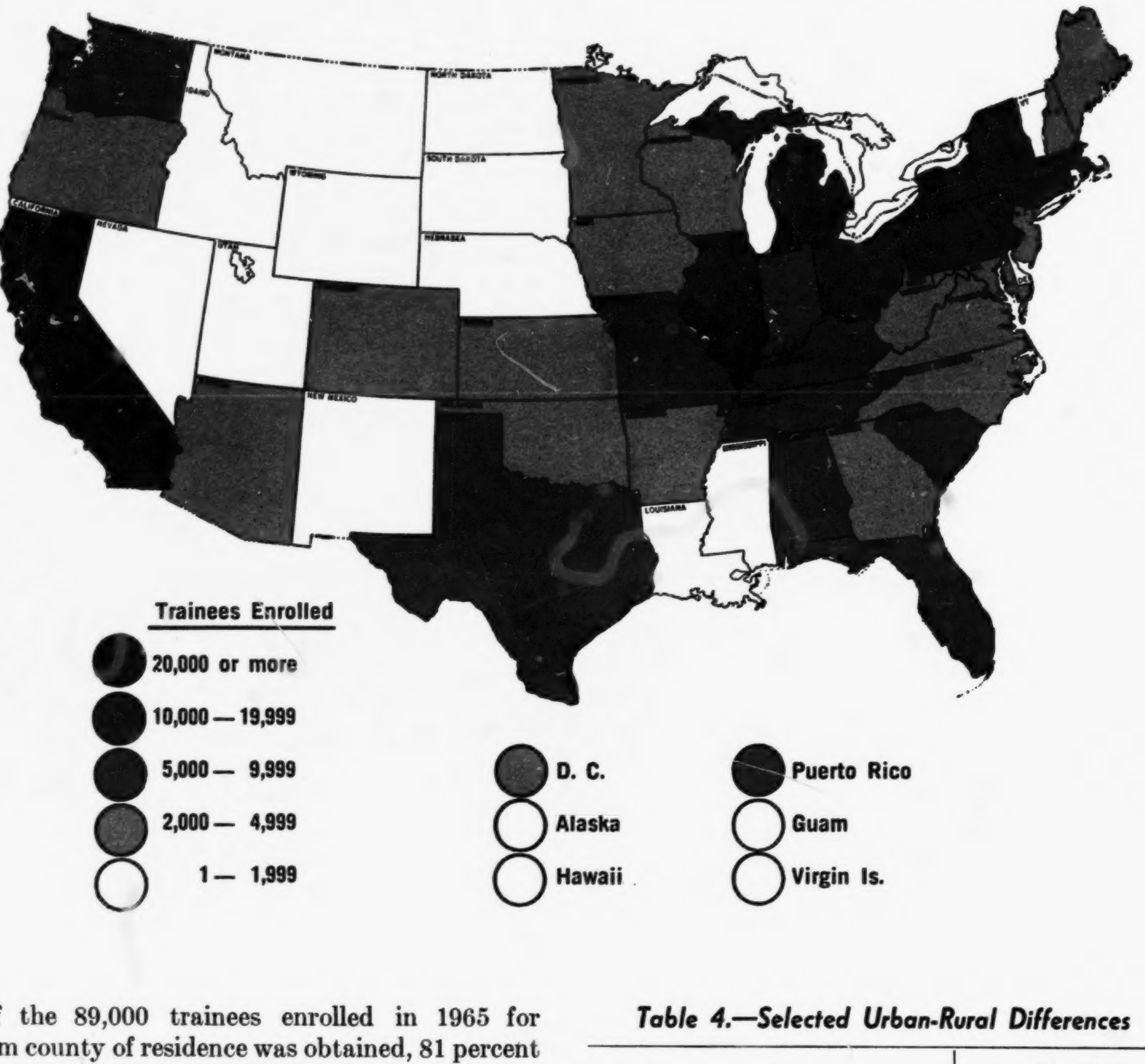
The States and Territories vary widely from national averages as to the characteristics of trainees and kinds of occupations for which they are trained; for example, only slightly over half of the States approximate the ratio of 60 percent men to 40 percent women in training. The Virgin Islands show only 21 percent of the trainees to be men, while Mississippi shows 92 percent of its trainees to be men. In Pennsylvania, 79 percent of the trainees are men, and 60 percent of all enrollees there are being trained for skilled or semi-skilled occupations. Determinations of training needs are made locally, and enrollment reflects the diversity of local conditions.

Comparison: Urban-Rural Trainees

Most Manpower trainees live in urban areas, which is to be expected since more than 70 percent of all Americans in 1965 lived in urban areas. There is every indication that this percentage will increase.

Since July 1964, data on trainees have been tabulated by the type of county in which a trainee resided at the time of enrollment. The Bureau of Census definitions are used. If 50 percent or more of the population of a county reside in towns of 2,500 or more, the county is classed as urban; if less than 50 percent, as rural.

Figure 4.—Number of trainees enrolled in institutional projects cumulative through November 15, 1965.


MONTANA
IDAHO
NORTH DAKOTA
SOUTH DAKOTA
WYOMING
CALIFORNIA
NEVADA
UTAH
NEBRASKA
NEW MEXICO
MISSISSIPPI
LOUISIANA
Trainees Enrolled
20,000 or more
10,000 — 19,999
5,000 — 9,999
2,000 — 4,999
1 — 1,999
D. C.
Alaska
Hawaii
Puerto Rico
Guam
Virgin Is.

Of the 89,000 trainees enrolled in 1965 for whom county of residence was obtained, 81 percent came from urban counties and only 19 percent from rural counties. Most of the trainees from rural counties are men (69 percent) whereas the trainees from urban counties are more evenly divided: 57 percent men and 43 percent women.

The trainees from rural areas have completed fewer years of school. The effect of the migration of rural youth to towns is reflected in the fact that a smaller number of youth are drawn from the rural areas and more of the rural trainees are 45 years of age or older. Rural trainees have spent more years at gainful employment and, when unemployed, have been so for less time. Of the total trainees enrolled during 1965, a third are nonwhite but only 16 percent of those from rural areas are nonwhite. Table 4 summarizes comparisons in a number of categories.

Table 4.—Selected Urban-Rural Differences

Education, age, work experience	Percent	
	Urban	Rural
Completed 8th grade or fewer years of school	14.8	20.6
21 years old or younger	43.3	39.6
45 years old or older	9.4	10.9
Worked 10 years or longer	21.0	24.2
Worked over 3 years	55.0	62.1
Unemployed less than 15 weeks	47.6	53.1

Minority Groups

Because of the significance of minority groups in America today and because one cannot measure the impact of the Manpower training in figures alone, this subject has been treated separately in chapter VIII. The Department has administered the program in a quiet but straightforward manner to give minority group members the training they need most and can use best for economic opportunity.

Cost Efficiency

The average cost per trainee has increased each year.

This is due, primarily, to two factors. The first is the increased allowances provided for in the 1965 amendments to the Manpower Act. The second factor is the extension of the training period to accommodate basic education and other supportive services for illiterates and near illiterates and to provide the longer period necessary to teach the more technical skills.

The average institutional training cost per trainee over the past 3½ years is low, about $720 (this does not include allowances paid). Because of increased enrollments in basic education and in high skill training, the average cost for 1965 is estimated to be $850.

There also has been some increase due to higher instructor salaries and, to a lesser extent, a rise in fixed charges and other miscellaneous costs. However, the average cost of equipment purchases per trainee has declined about 16 percent from fiscal year 1964 to fiscal year 1965.

A breakdown of the training dollar shows that 58 percent of approved training cost (excluding allowances) went for instructional services in fiscal year 1963. This increased to 59 percent in fiscal year 1964, and to 63 percent in fiscal year 1965. In the 10 occupations with the greatest enrollment for which training has been given, the percentage of cost for instructional services decreased in 3 occupations between fiscal year 1963 and fiscal year 1965. These were general office clerk, clerk typist, and nurse's aide. (See table 5.)

To meet Chicago employment needs, a typing training course includes men students.

When the hourly rates for instruction are examined, they compare favorably with rates for similar training in the same localities. They are frequently lower due, in part, to low space costs. The Manpower program is not charged for space in school buildings already built. The program has no authority for facility construction, but may lease warehouses and other unused space which is suitable for training, and also benefits from the use of deactivated military and other Government installations.

Table 5.—Distribution Costs for Ten Leading Occupations

Occupation	Number of trainees			Average cost per trainee			Percent instructional services			Percent fixed charges			Percent maintenance and repair			Percent equipment			Percent other costs			Percent[1] local supervision		
	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965	1963	1964	1965
Auto body repairman	1,323	1,859	2,441	1,183	1,127	1,098	59	59	63	6	10	9	2	1	1	27	23	20	7	7	7	8	8	8
Automobile mechanic	2,807	3,062	3,735	1,208	1,326	1,117	51	56	60	7	8	9	2	2	1	32	26	22	8	7	8	8	8	10
Clerk, general office	488	1,111	487	301	619	599	66	56	61	3	2	3	2	1	1	19	34	25	11	6	9	12	8	7
Clerk typist	2,103	2,961	1,731	423	399	532	61	62	52	2	5	3	2	2	2	24	22	11	11	10	32	8	9	7
Licensed practical nurse	796	3,467	2,251	1,066	1,359	1,193	74	75	80	6	9	6	1	0	0	15	10	5	5	5	8	11	11	14
Machine operator, general	3,600	3,472	4,855	727	997	889	48	51	52	3	4	4	5	3	3	31	32	31	13	10	10	7	7	7
Nurse's aide	1,453	1,710	1,944	123	192	158	83	73	74	4	6	8	1	1	1	9	14	9	5	7	9	10	16	13
Stenographer	3,103	4,558	2,607	557	608	588	54	60	62	4	4	5	2	2	2	28	20	17	12	14	14	7	13	10
Sub-assembly installer	None	362	2,260	------	401	115	----	84	90	----	2	2	----	3	1	----	4	2	----	7	5	----	11	14
Welder, combination	1,395	1,444	3,412	884	996	642	60	62	67	3	4	6	2	3	2	24	23	17	11	8	8	6	9	7

[1] Percent of instructional services are also included in local supervision column.

Cost Benefits

More than 345,000 persons have been enrolled in institutional training courses. If one considers that the majority of these are heads of families and that families average four persons, it may be assumed that about 1 million persons have received direct benefits from this program. Placing these trainees in jobs is of incalculable benefit in the restoration of family life, and a new awareness of the value of education from the trainees and their children.

The new income gained by trainees is multiplied and the benefits are diffused throughout the economy. Random samples of wage rate increases gained by Manpower graduates indicate that it takes only a few years for the increased tax payments from greater earning power to redeem the Federal cost of training.

Not only are Federal expenditures recovered, but many State and local expenditures are decreased as a consequence of reductions in welfare and unemployment compensation payments to persons who are enrolled in the program.

Length of Training

There is a continuing trend to longer periods of training.

Averages conceal many variables. The length of any Manpower course is influenced by the characteristics and needs of trainees, the occupation in which training is to be conducted, the methods and techniques of instruction, and the employer's requirements. In occupations requiring licensure, the length of training may be set by State law.

The average length of regular institutional courses increased from 26.5 weeks to 28 weeks from calendar year 1963 to calendar year 1964, and to about 35 weeks in 1965. (Accurate data are not yet available on the length of multiple-occupation projects for 1965, but it is estimated that the average length of courses in these projects is close to 40 weeks; and many run 52 weeks or more.)

The 1965 amendments to the Manpower Act increased the possibilities for basic education and thereby extended the average length of training. Approximately 2 out of 3 individuals in multiple-occupation projects receive such education, and there is an increase in enrollment from the disadvantaged groups. Training for technical and semiprofessional skills also requires longer training periods.

Post-training Employment

The acid test for success in the Manpower training program—or any other training program—is employment after training and the capability of retaining a job.

By the end of 1965, about 125,000 persons had completed training in institutional projects. Three-fourths of them are currently employed and nearly all have had some employment since the end of training. Most employment was in jobs related to their training. The proportion in training-related jobs has been steadily increasing, reaching 79 percent for 1965. Since the start of the program 77 percent of the graduates have obtained training-related jobs. The graduates represented a wide spectrum of occupations and had greatly differing characteristics and abilities.

Detailed information on work experience since the completion of training is confined at present to approximately 60,000 graduates, with the most complete coverage for 1964 graduates. Only early report data for the 1965 graduates have been tabulated. A canvass of graduates is made at 3-month, 6-month, and 12-month intervals after completion of training. Several months are required for the States to compile and process the data.

Followup reports were obtained on 67 percent of the trainees who completed training during 1963. It was possible to locate and secure data on 84 percent of those completing training during 1964.

More than half (53 percent) of the 1964 graduates canvassed were male. Four percent had withdrawn from the labor force, and of those still in it, 82.5 percent were employed. Seventy-three percent of the nonwhite graduates were employed and 84 percent of the white graduates. The worker 45 years of age or older has difficulty in securing employment, whether white or nonwhite, but age makes the least difference in the employment of women. The comparative labor force status for male and female graduates is shown in figure 5.

The level of education prior to training continued to have a positive relationship to the percentage employed even after training. Those with an eighth grade education or less, had a more difficult time gaining positions than did those with a high school education or more.

Duration of prior unemployment appears to be a factor also. The shorter the period of previous

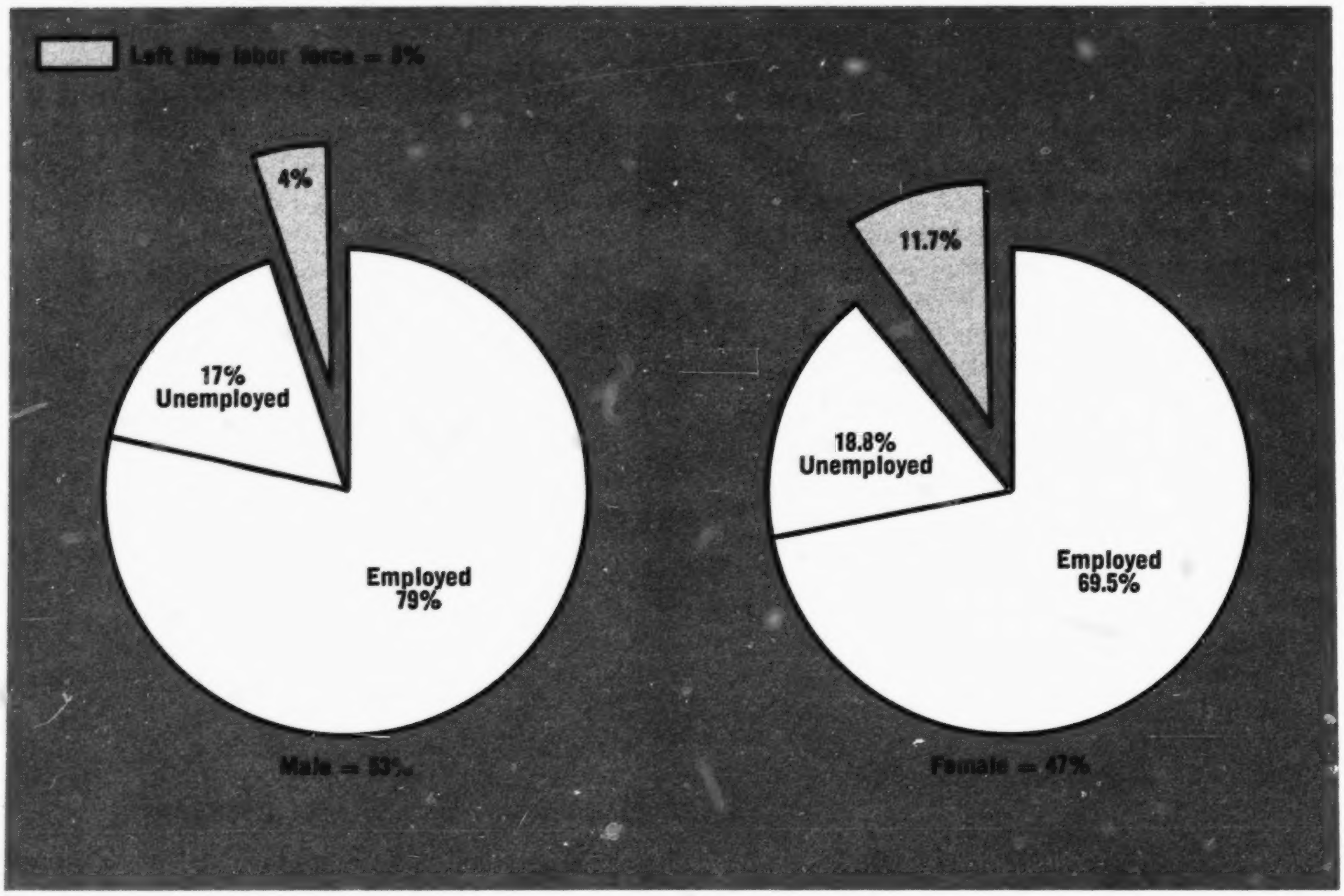


Figure 5.—Labor force status of 1964 institutional training graduates.

unemployment, the greater the percentage who were employed after training. Eighty-four percent of those who had been unemployed less than 5 weeks, were employed, but only 73 percent of those who had been unemployed a year or more.

Ninety-four percent of the graduates of courses in semiprofessional, technical, and managerial occupations were employed. Eighty-two percent of the stenographers secured jobs as compared to 78 percent of the clerk-typists and typists, and to 76 percent of the general office clerks. In one occupational group (semiprofessional, technical, and managerial) the employment rate for nonwhite graduates (96 percent), exceeded that for whites (94 percent). Figure 6 shows the proportions of trainees in the major occupational categories employed after Manpower training.

Sixty percent of the employed graduates in 1964 reported earning $1.50 or more per hour and 5 percent reported earning $3 or more per hour. Men secured employment at higher pay rates. Forty-five percent of the men earned $2 or more an hour, while only 12 percent of the women did

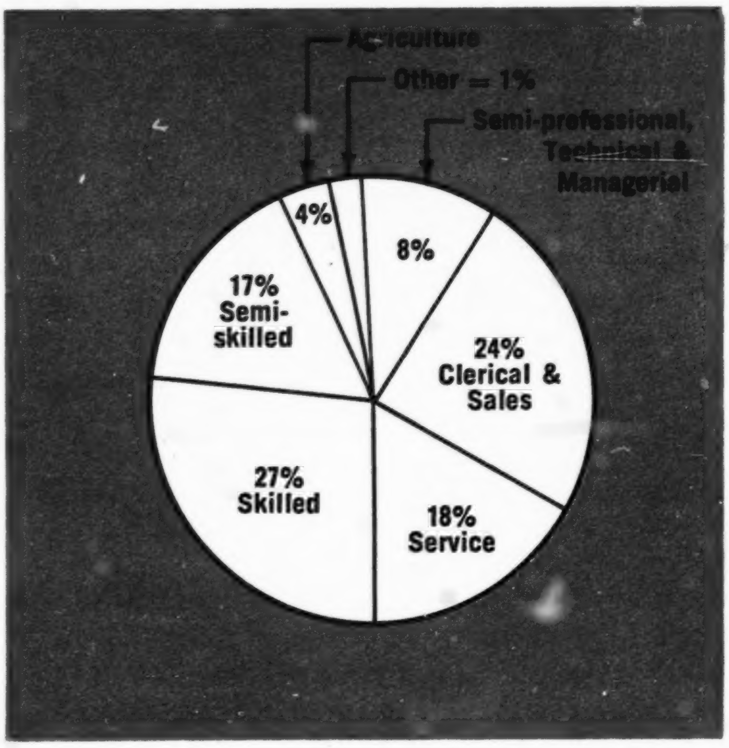


Figure 6.—Percent of Manpower graduates employed by major occupational categories.

as well. The difference in wage levels between the races was less pronounced than that between the sexes. Fifty-eight percent of the white graduates earned between $1.15 and $2 per hour, compared to 62 percent of the nonwhites. Thirty-three percent of the white graduates earned $2 or more an hour, compared with 19 percent of the nonwhites.

Over 80 percent of the graduates reported earnings equal to or greater than their earnings before training, 54 percent earned more. Of those earning $3 or more an hour, over half had earned less before, some as little as 50 cents to 75 cents an hour.

Of the 2,600 graduates of 1964 who withdrew from the labor force after training, 73 percent were women. Two-fifths of them reported they were needed at home and another fifth were ill. Twenty percent of the men who left the labor force returned to school full-time.

Completion Rate

The completion rate of trainees in training held steady through 1963 and 1964 at approximately 75 percent. Tabulations from all States are not yet available for 1965, but some areas indicate that the rate may have decreased to about 66 percent. Assuming this, the overall rate for 3 years is still comparable to regular secondary schools, but it bears watching and will receive careful analysis.

Some pressures working against completion are known. In a tightening labor market there is more temptation to leave training for a job that currently pays more than the allowance rate, even though the job is marginal. This may not be wise, but is understandable. Chronic health problems are the cause of many training course dropouts, especially among the increasing number of enrollees from disadvantaged groups. There has been no measurement of the impact that increased draft calls, and a lowering of draftee requirements, have made on the Manpower program.

Training in Private Schools

There has been a growth in the use of nonpublic facilities for Manpower training programs. The number of projects reported as of November 1965, shows that the approvals for nonpublic facilities doubled from fiscal year 1963 to fiscal year 1964, and increased still further in fiscal year 1965 (from 101 to 153). The number of trainees approved for training in private schools increased from 948 in fiscal year 1963 to 7,666 in fiscal year 1965. In dollar amounts, the expenditures for training in private facilities rose from $2.7 million in fiscal year 1964 to $6.2 million in 1965. The States of California, Illinois, and Michigan account for half of the total projects and trainees approved for private institutions.

The amendments of 1965 authorize a wider use of private facilities "where such private institutions can provide equipment or services not available in public institutions, particularly for training in technical and subprofessional occupations, or where such institutions can, at reasonable cost, (1) provide substantially equivalent training, or (2) make possible an expanded use of the individual referral method, or (3) aid in reducing more quickly unemployment or current and prospective Manpower shortages."

Where such institutions are accredited and possess resources to carry out the requirements of the Act, it may be expected that their use will continue to grow.

Training in Correctional Institutions

Manpower training began in 1964 for inmates of correctional institutions prior to their release or parole. The success of these programs, combined with the amendment to the Act in 1965 which permits the Federal Government to help provide bonds where prospective employers require them, will likely stimulate this kind of training.

The first group of graduates from the Lorton Youth Center, a correctional institution for the District of Columbia, shows a recidivist (repeating offense) rate of 3 percent, compared to the normal repetition of offense rate of more than 40 percent. An increased volume of training may not sustain this spectacular reduction, but great attention and interest has been attracted throughout the correctional institution field to the possibilities of Manpower training for genuine rehabilitation.

The multiple occupation project at the Draper Correctional Institution at Elmore, Ala., is receiving much study. A number of skilled trades have been taught. Competence in technical writing has been developed in those with less than a completed high school education. Good counseling, modern teaching methods and equip-

Chicago Manpower trainee graduating class from Louise Burg Hospital in Chicago.

ment, and excellent teaching have been brought to Draper to serve youthful offenders from 16 to 21 years of age.

Manpower Training in the Health Occupations

In a little more than a decade, employment in the health occupations has jumped 40 percent, while total employment has increased 14 percent. More than 2 million persons work in health services. Most of these are professionals: physicians, dentists, nurses, and pharmacists, but nearly three-quarters of a million persons serve as practical nurses, orderlies, nurse's aides, hospital attendants, or in other subprofessional occupations.

Since August 1962, a total of 927 separate projects have been approved under the Manpower Act to train 42,100 persons in health occupations. Health occupation training accounts for about 10 percent of the total training projects approved.

Training has been approved for 33 different occupations, but most training is concentrated in nurse aide and licensed practical nurse courses, which make up two-thirds of all approvals. These two, plus courses for orderlies and psychiatric aides, and refresher courses for professional nurses total 91 percent of all approved Manpower training in the health occupations.

At least one project was approved in each of the 50 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands.

Projects in four States (California, Illinois, Michigan, and New York) account for a little more than half of all trainees in the health occupations. See table 6.

Table 6.—Training Approvals for Selected Health Occupations in the Four Leading States

States	All health occupations	Selected occupations			
		Nurse aide	Licensed practical nurse	Orderly	Psychiatric aide
U.S. total	42,071	15,008	14,214	3,914	2,404
	Percent distribution				
U.S. total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total, four States	53.9	48.4	63.4	86.4	40.9
California	18.4	26.1	17.5	3.8	2.5
Illinois	10.0	4.5	13.3	--------	38.4
Michigan	12.7	12.3	10.2	47.9	--------
New York	12.8	5.5	22.4	34.7	--------

Characteristics, Health Service Enrollees

Women total almost 90 percent of the trainees enrolled in institutional courses in health occupations. More than half of the trainees in health occupations were in the prime age group, 22–44 years of age—about the same as in all institutional training occupations.

Fourteen percent of the enrollees in health occupation courses were 45 years of age and over compared to 10 percent of all institutional enrollees.

The anticipated increase in need for health service workers in the next 10 years is great, providing an expanded potential of work for unemployed and presently underemployed people. More than 1 million new persons will be needed, most of them in subprofessional categories. To stimulate the development and training of workers in the health service occupations, the Departments of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare sponsored a Job Development Conference in Health Services in February 1966. Representatives of employing institutions, professional groups, unions, and leaders in the health fields, held an intensive 3-day working session to estimate the needs for people, discuss the problems of training, and suggest new ways to make better use of the Federal training programs.

Service to Handicapped Workers

One of the values of the Manpower training program is its capacity for flexibility to supplement and augment other programs of training. The rehabilitation needs of handicapped workers are served primarily by the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration. But during 1965 nearly 8 percent of all Manpower institutional trainees were handicapped. This was a slight increase over the number served in 1964. In both years the proportion of handicapped workers in training was higher than their representation among the unemployed.

Most of the handicapped trainees were male, and most were heads of families. They tended to be older, to have had less formal education, and to have been unemployed for a longer time than other Manpower trainees.

Table 7 summarizes selected characteristics of the handicapped persons who have been enrolled in institutional training courses in 1964 and 1965.

Table 7.—Selected Characteristics of Enrollees in MDTA Institutional Projects Who Were Handicapped, 1964 and 1965

Characteristics	Percent distribution	
	1965	1964
Handicapped as a percent of all enrollees	7.5	7.1
Sex	100.0	100.0
Male	80.7	82.7
Female	19.3	17.3
Age	100.0	100.0
Under 19 years	10.9	6.9
19 to 21 years	17.6	16.4
22 to 44 years	52.9	57.8
45 years and over	18.6	18.9
Family status	100.0	100.0
Heads of household	62.2	68.2
Other	37.8	31.8
Education	100.0	100.0
Less than 8th grade	10.9	11.2
8th grade	14.7	14.5
9th to 11th grade	32.5	31.6
12th grade	35.9	35.8
Over 12th grade	6.0	6.9
Duration of unemployment	100.0	100.0
Less than 5 weeks	25.3	25.8
5 to 14 weeks	21.6	21.4
15 to 26 weeks	13.9	13.8
27 weeks and over	39.2	39.0

Measurements of Attitudes of Manpower Trainees

The Institute of Social Research at the University of Michigan, under a contract with the Department, has completed the second stage of a three-stage study of the attitudes and motivations of 6,000 Manpower trainees in more than 300 classes. (The first stage of the study was described in last year's report to the Congress.) The sample was designed to reflect national characteristics, while permitting regional and local comparisons. The national sample did not include experimental and demonstation projects concerned with special hard-core and literacy problems. However, the Institute concurrently is doing a separate and more intensive study of one such program—the Chicago JOBS Project—for the Department of Labor. The summary here reflects both studies to date.

In the three-stage study trainees are interviewed at the time of enrollment, at the time of leaving the program, and at a point from 6 months to a year after leaving the program. The projects selected began during the period of mid-1964 to mid-1965.

The questionnaires, both at enrollment and termination, gather data on the attitudes and motivations of trainees with the goal of uncovering problems that might hinder success in training. Answers to these questions are sought: Why do some trainees drop out? Why do others complete but fail to use their training in the job world? Can better program planning deal with these problems? Are there motivational signs, which can be picked up at the time training begins, from which predictions can be made and for which corrections can be designed?

The trainees are questioned about their general attitudes toward the program, major criticisms, what they liked most or least. The more complex level of questions seek to uncover any deep-lying personality or motivational problems which hold a person back from developing his full potential for a productive life. Researchers at the Institute have found that the simple level of questions are not to be underestimated. Sometimes a focus on deep problems can blur much that can be learned about the program's effect on the trainee. Simple straightforward questions usually get a straight response.

Some Preliminary Results

Most trainees who complete the program have a favorable feeling about it.—Only a few said they would not go into a Manpower program "if they had it to do over." Nearly three out of four would go back into the same course. Nearly three out of four considered the training good to excellent. Only 1 in 10 believed that his training was "not good enough." Overall reaction to instructors was good.

The discipline of a return to training is not a significant problem for adults.—Results modify previous expectations about the Manpower training program. Approximately 85 percent of the trainees who completed the program believed that school rules and regulations were about right. Furthermore, of the minority who complained, more said that the rules were not strict enough than said that they were too strict. For example, 20 percent of the trainees said that rules about attendance and tardiness were not strict enough, and only 3 percent found them too strict. Almost 15 percent of all trainees and 20 percent of all women said that rules about appearance, neatness, and dress were not strict enough, compared with only 2 percent who said these rules were too strict.

Data from other answers corroborate the general finding that trainees accept rather than question or reject general public standards and values.

More work simulation and counseling is needed to assist the transition from training to work.—Discipline is less of a problem with trainees than is their concern for practical experience. Nearly two out of three trainees preferred more practical experience in class. One out of three said that there was not enough equipment for all the students.

Only 5 percent of the trainees believed that the course lasted "too long"; more than half said it was "too short." Fifteen percent said it was "much too short." Most trainees either thought that they were ready for the job or that they could acquire any necessary additional training on the job. However, 20 percent thought that more classroom training would have helped them.

It is not surprising that trainees develop apprehension as their graduation date nears. And it may be necessary to give more attention to the completeness of training experience, including equipment practice, increased counseling, and other supportive services.

The probe of motivations proceeded on two levels: (1) Those that reflect primarily a trainee's present situation—the pressures and realities he has to cope with; and (2) the deeper personality characteristics with long roots in a trainee's past.

At this stage of the study, findings are clearer about motivational responses to immediate concerns and pressures.

Trainees who drop out to take a job do not appear to differ in attitude or motivation from those who complete training. They have similar attitudes about work, personal competency and effectiveness. Expectations about training, psychological symptoms, and self-esteem are about the same for those in both groups. The dropouts, however, were under greater economic pressure when they entered the program. They were less sure that they could get along on the training allowance, without borrowing money or taking odd jobs on the side.

Findings are less clear on deeper personality characteristics. Most trainees seem to come to the program with hope rather than demoralization, and are committed to the goals and values of training, but no striking or clear patterns yet emerge between graduates and dropouts.

Voluntary dropouts for reasons other than job opportunities seem to have psychological problems of apathy or feelings of ineffectiveness, but these findings are not yet firm. Nor can firm conclusions be drawn about trainees dismissed from the program for low performance or for reasons that suggest acute psychological problems. Rather than demoralization, these trainees are often unduly optimistic, both in their views of their own competency and in their expectations of what training will do for them. This lack of realism, and its inevitable disillusionment, may be their major problem.

The national sample permits comparison of different groups by region, rural and urban locale, age, and sex. Not all of the correlations have been completed, but some implications for program planning may come from what is emerging in comparisons of the attitudes of men and women trainees. The main differences between them relate more to the kinds of jobs for which they are being trained, than to any psychological difference.

Men and women are similar in their general reaction to training, their overall satisfaction and even in their response to discipline. Men complain more about equipment than do women. Men are somewhat less committed to the program, even when they enter training. They apparently feel greater economic pressures, more often express a desire to be working rather than training, and more often admit readiness to leave training under certain conditions. More male trainees are married and have families to support. Women trainees have more savings and less debts. Even women with economic pressure more often remain in training and may be more able than men to see training as a long-range solution for their economic problems.

The full import must await completion of the third phase of the study, and final conclusions should not be prejudged. But present trends are encouraging.

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Chapter III

The Variety of Institutions, Facilities, and Agencies

No other education or training program matches the Manpower program in the diversity of institutions, facilities, and equipment used, or in the variety of project sponsors, or community agencies employed for supportive services. This stems from two primary factors: The nature of the training and the characteristics of the trainees.

The Nature of Training Demands a Variety of Facilities

The kind of training—either institutional or on-the-job—explains why it is necessary to use many different kinds of facilities.

Institutional Training.—The majority of trainees enrolled in Manpower projects received institutional training in public and private vocational education or technical schools. Although classroom work is included, the emphasis is on shopwork. Students do not just read or look at pictures, they learn by working on offset presses, motors, computers, modern lathes, and other equipment.

Trainees participate in sales training courses at the Orlando, Fla., center.

The shortage of public and private school facilities, combined with the great increase in range of occupations for which training must be provided, meant that the Manpower program had to expand and improvise facilities for institutional training. The facilities acquired may still be considered "vocational schools," but they have taken new forms and have involved new relationships with public and private community agencies and industry. The use of new and different kinds of equipment has also brought about a more intimate association with industry.

On-the-job Training.—In strict on-the-job training an enrollee is actually hired and taught work skills while he is contributing to his employer's production. There is a real employer-employee relationship. The trainee is paid wages, does not receive allowances, but the employer is reimbursed for extra materials and extra supervision time. There is nothing new about this kind of training, except that the Manpower program has greatly encouraged and stimulated it. Large industries may find this to be economically profitable to do on their own. Small shops, however, who would like to take on employees through this route, need some help.

On-the-job training often requires supplementary or related instruction. For example, much of the training of a service station attendant can be accomplished by on-the-job supervision as he fills automobile gasoline tanks, checks the oil, and performs related services. But the proper handling of credit cards, use of the cash register, customer courtesy, giving directions, and a variety of other job skills are better acquired through related instruction.

Most of the health occupations demand on-the-job training in a clinical or hospital setting, but they also require the mastery of related theory and subject matter by classroom instruction.

If basic education courses are needed by an individual so that he can read labels, follow written instructions, and the like, supplementary classroom instruction must be given off the job.

Relating classroom instruction to on-the-job training has made it necessary to use a wide variety of places for supplementary instruction. Union halls, churches, and social agencies have donated space, or rented it at moderate rates, to the Manpower program for this purpose.

The major innovation in on-the-job training in 1965 has been contracting for training on a national basis with a company, trade association, or trade union. Most of these contracts have involved classroom or related instruction combined with on-the-job training. For example, the Tidewater Oil Co. contracted for the training of service station managers over an area covering many States. The American Hospital Association contracted for the training of 4,000 health service workers in a number of States. Other industries and trade associations have developed similar proposals.

The law permits this kind of direct contracting, and where there is an institutional or supplementary classroom component of the training, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is responsible for that training. The Department contracts for educational services through agencies or associations which are not strictly educational. In specifying the educational standards in the contract, and in the continuous supervision of training, the Department has opened relationships with new groups.

Experimental and Demonstration Projects.—It is through this route that community agencies have made a major contribution. A single institution, or sometimes a combination of local agencies, sponsor demonstration or experimental projects using new methods for specific groups of people. This emphasizes the fact that it is the nature of the groups to be trained that has brought about the cooperation of a wider network of community agencies.

The Needs of People Have Stimulated Experimentation

Many of the hard-core unemployed are out of work because of severe educational deficiencies. Those who have never been consistently employed usually present a host of other problems—physical, mental, and social—in varying degrees of severity. These persons are often found receiving services from welfare departments, family service agencies, boys clubs, parole officers, health clinics, and sometimes counseling from guidance centers or other service groups.

One of the pressing problems has been the lack of coordination among these services. If there is no self-supporting economic capacity in an individual, welfare is necessarily called on for a continuous response to crisis.

Therefore these agencies, singly and in combination, have been most eager to see their clients in training programs, or to accept referrals of individuals by training directors or counselors for one kind or another of supportive service to sustain them in training.

Outreach.—The various community agencies have been of invaluable service in making people aware of training opportunities, and in sustaining people so that they remain in training. These agencies have emphasized the necessity to get out where the people are, to establish more accessible centers of employment service, and neighborhood training projects.

One coordinated effort is the JOBS (Job Opportunities through Better Skills) Project in Chicago, which is sponsored by the Young Men's Christian Association, the Chicago Boys' Clubs, and the Metropolitan Youth Centers. This project has few problems in recruitment because the supervisor uses the resources of the agencies who know where the people are and who are already providing them with some kind of service. Project Peace, in Cleveland, Ohio, is one of the newest programs directed to the inner city. In this project, ministers of all area churches, as well as the staff of social agencies, are used in recruitment. This project has a constant waiting list of applicants. This is especially noteworthy, for while the persons served by this kind of project need the service most, they are oftentimes the least likely to step forward to get it.

Use of Indigenous Personnel.—The experimental and demonstration projects for the disadvantaged have shown that a most contructive use can be made of people from within the groups served. Training has enabled some of the enrollees to become teacher or counselor aides. They know

A trainee in Chicago JOBS automotive repair class is shown obtaining practical experience in working on engines.

their own people and understand the peculiarities of speech and idiom. This enables them to encourage loyalty to the program—for they are trusted—and to improve communications—for they can interpret to other staff members.

It is heartening to see this done successfully. By this means it has been possible to increase greatly the quantity and quality of training.

New Experimentation in Basic Literacy.—Experimental and demonstration projects have provided the freedom to find out what methods do the best job in achieving or improving literacy. Chapter V relates specifically to this, and the achievement record in one project cited in chapter VII demonstrates that successful methods are being found. Emphasis is placed on reaching the groups who need it most. And to overcome their inhibitions, fears, and pride it has been necessary for Manpower programs to work closely with local service agencies. Together they can do what neither could do alone.

Minority Group Organizations and Universities

The Urban League has been especially effective in stimulating the development of the combined institutional and on-the-job training project (or coupled project). Urban League offices in 24 cities have agreed to find job opportunities for 7,000 individuals in their communities. In addition to recruiting the trainees, the Urban League develops contacts with individual employers and administers subcontracts with them.

The first Urban League contract in Pittsburgh served 113 persons. The second is to be for 400. In the first program, 28 individuals had no work history, 21 had received welfare assistance, and the remaining 64 had worked at low-level jobs paying on the average only $18 per week. Jobs were found for all 113 in training programs including floral design, keypunch operation, machine shop work, upholstering, warehousework, floor tiling, meat cutting, auto body repair, and stenog-

A student wearing a headset in a stenographic class prepares for dictation practice.

HEW Assistant Secretary James Quigley, Steelworkers President I. W. Abel, Prof. Eli Ginzberg (Chairman) and AVA's Executive Secretary M. D. Mobley discuss training problems at a National Manpower Advisory Committee meeting.

raphy. The average weekly wage for the entire group rose to $62 per week after completion of training.

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People cooperated with the Urban League in Cleveland to develop a prejob training program for more than 1,000 youths between 16 and 25. This project prepares individuals to pass examinations for apprentice programs in various crafts, or arranges enrollment in Manpower training programs.

Various Mexican-American organizations in California have begun to take similar initiative and responsibility in developing training programs.

This development of the use of minority group organizations, service organizations, trade associations, and trade unions in addition to the State vocational education agencies, has had the practical effect of providing occupational training quickly to more people.

Universities perhaps have made their greatest contribution by operating programs of research. However, they operate training projects also.

Northern Michigan University is cited in chapter IV for its role in operating a Manpower training center to serve the entire Michigan upper peninsula area. In the South, predominantly Negro colleges have been used to develop experimental regional Manpower centers for the rural poor. About a half dozen of these centers have been established, with programs that vary with the needs of the regions and the people. These colleges and the Manpower program have a common interest in developing special curricula to meet special needs, and in determining how colleges can best serve rural manpower development needs.

The Tuskegee Institute project is an example of this experimentation. Recruitment of applicants was made by a door-to-door approach. One hundred and eighty applicants were selected, half to live on campus and half to commute to it for a 1-year program of basic education, counseling, and job training for brick masonry, carpentry, farm machinery repair, and meat processing.

More than 90 percent of those enrolled completed the year of training. Those living on campus had better attendance and achievement records. More than 80 percent of the graduates were placed in jobs averaging $2.16 per hour.

The lowest hourly wage was $1.35, in meat processing, and the highest, $4.25 per hour, was in bricklaying.

It was learned that it is better to group trainees by learning potential, than by age or residence; that medical attention is often a precondition for progress; that literacy and arithmetic training must be tied to occupational skills training (a motivational consideration generally supported in other programs); and that effective counseling is a necessity.

The Urban League of Greater New York and Yeshiva University cooperated in providing training to bridge the gap between inadequate college preparation and teacher qualifying standards for the New York schools. The graduates who came from predominantly Negro colleges in the South, were hired to teach in New York.

The role of the universities and technical institutes will grow as more highly skilled subprofessional technical training and refresher courses for scientists and engineers are conducted.

Advisory Committee Participation

The role of the advisory committees merits special mention. The National Manpower Advisory Committee and the eight regional advisory committees are counselors, in effect, to the Secretaries of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare. The State advisory committees aid their respective governors. Educators, business men, labor leaders, and representatives of the general public, including minority groups, serve on the committees. They make a vital contribution in policy determination, and ask the critical questions necessary for the development of a sound program.

At local levels, advisory committees help judge the merits of program proposals and their advice is essential.

A growing development is the organization of advisory groups associated with different trades and occupations. They provide invaluable assistance to the schools and training centers, assuring a practical training which is related to actual industrial needs.

The sum of developments to date shows a measurable growth in bringing together, in cooperative endeavor, many elements of our society to serve the needs of unemployed and underemployed people. More than that, new dimensions of working together are being discovered.

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Chapter IV

An Emerging Concept—The Manpower Training Center

Manpower training centers have grown out of the attempt to solve the practical problems of training many people with diverse characteristics in a variety of jobs, in an economical manner. One of the first multiple skill training centers, at South Bend, Ind., was catapulted into existence in response to the closing of the Studebaker plant. The skill centers promise to be one of the most efficient and flexible instruments for Manpower training.

A Solution to Facilities

Manpower projects necessarily had to utilize the existing regular vocational education facilities in 1962. It soon became apparent that these could not long absorb the growing influx of trainees—despite the best efforts of many local and State vocational education officials who performed yeoman service to accommodate the program, and to provide the needed training. The cooperation and dedication of these men continues to be first rate, but their limited facilities are hard pressed.

The new Vocational Education Act provides for assistance to the States in constructing additional facilities, including new area vocational schools. But it will be 1970 before most of these are in full operation and, even then, the probability is that they will have to serve, primarily, the demands of a different population.

Thus it has been necessary to find other quarters to house large groups of trainees and the appropriate equipment. Warehouses are leased, unused portions of Government facilities—usually deactivated sections of military installations—are utilized, and in some cases old school buildings are acquired and converted for Manpower training activity. Public and private nonprofit institutions and agencies have also contributed space.

A multiple occupation project may occupy facilities that are closely grouped, or it may disperse some classes to several sections of a large city. In the case of the South Carolina STEP Project (Special Training for Economic Progress), multiple occupation training centers are placed throughout the State but have a central administration.

Manpower Centers Make Prime Use of Time

Training in Manpower centers is not scheduled for evening hours only, as it often must be in regular vocational high schools. Manpower courses in a center can start and stop in any week or season of the year; they are not held to a regular school semester system. Add to this the skill training (up to 40 hours a week), with a basic education component, and the result is maximum service to the trainee and the most effective use of time. For whatever reasons, the people who become Manpower trainees have already lost too much time. They must redeem as much as possible, as quickly as possible, to gain a skill and a job.

Manpower Centers Are Economical

A single-occupation training project is not usually the most economical way to provide training. By placing groups of projects together in a multiple-occupation project savings are achieved by sharing facilities, teachers, and administrative overhead. Money as well as time is saved when course sections are repeated with little or no interruption between the end of one section and the beginning of another. When multiple-occupation projects are planned for continuous operation, long-term leases are usually arranged and this saves money. The planning and development of curricula are simplified and the maximum use of costly equipment can be achieved.

Manpower Centers Give More Choices

Manpower training centers with multiple occupational training give more job choices to an individual, and permit him more exploratory leeway before making a choice.

If an unemployed person has only the opportunity to take a training course for a short-order cook in a single course project, he does not have a free choice though he may be sure of obtaining a job. Moreover, the single choice may not suit his aptitudes any more than it does his desires. There are enough job openings in our society to make it both possible and desirable to give people choices. To train and place the right man in the right job for him, as he sees it and as he is motivated, should be the goal.

Time is needed to verify his aptitudes. This is particularly true for those individuals who have had little experience with the world of work, or who need considerable basic education development. Manpower centers permit experimentation with broad-area skills while the intrinsic abilities of trainees are being verified and their potentials estimated. Then, with counseling, an individual is helped to make a personal choice, and he can move into a specific training area which is reasonable for him.

Manpower Centers Are Not Schools

To say that Manpower centers are not schools may appear to make a distinction without a real difference. There are, however, practical differences. Many youth trainees did not like school. They did not do well in it, and dropped out. It is not easy to persuade some of them into anything that resembles school. Also older persons sometimes have anxieties about returning to school.

The Manpower centers seem to be overcoming these problems by developing good morale and a spirit of attachment among the trainees. There is hardly time for the welders to field a softball team against the offset printers, but newsletters are developing and graduations are taking on form and ceremony. Even an alumni consciousness has been noted in some places.

Manpower Centers Combine Program Flexibility with Stability

The desirability of giving persons choices in training, must be accommodated also to the necessity to train for job needs as required by the labor market. When the need for a certain occupation in a local labor market area is satisfied, training in that occupation ceases. There has to be flexibility to phase out some training programs, and to initiate others, as openings develop in other occupational areas. By offering a broad spectrum of training, Manpower centers can manage this flexibility with little disruption.

Teachers, counselors, and aides all benefit from the stability of a continuing center. The teaching continuity provided makes it easier to obtain and retain teachers and to avoid paying premium instructional costs for terminal projects.

Different Levels But No Dumping Grounds

A manpower center's flexibility serves well the intent to tailor projects to the needs of the individuals. This implies a variety of levels, both in terms of skill-level groupings, and in course durations. Manpower centers have combined high and low skill occupational training under the same roof, without lowering the standards for the high skill training.

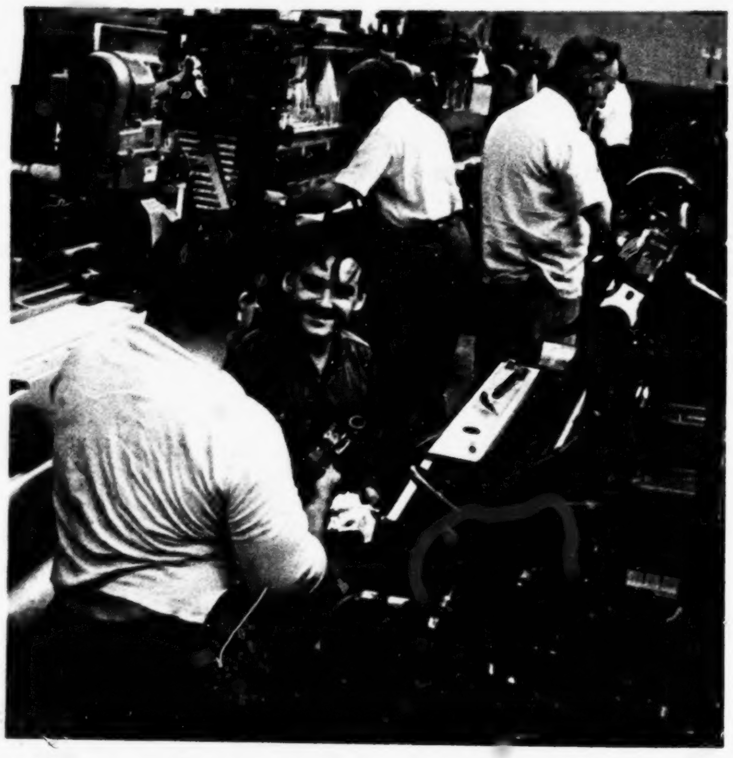
A Manpower Center Emphasis—Youth

In some places, a Manpower center has been developed to serve unemployed youth especially—for example, the Chattanooga Occupational Training Center. School administrators there had long been concerned with the dropout rate. The mayor, educators, and the local employment service representatives agreed that these former students should have a chance to develop. An instructional program was devised based on abilities, achievements, attitudes, and social adjustments of each youth.

The program reaches into surrounding States, and students are referred to the new center from Georgia and Alabama. Intensive training in a variety of occupational skills is supported by counseling and basic work in mathematics and communications skills. An average growth rate of more than two grade levels in arithmetic and reading is achieved in about 20 weeks. The trainees are gaining occupational competence and they are getting jobs.

A Manpower Center Emphasis—Meeting the Needs of an Industry

The Rhode Island Textile Manpower Training Center at Pawtucket is now turning out loom fixers and weavers to meet the acute shortage of skilled labor in one of that State's important industries.



Manpower training in loom fixing and weaving in Rhode Island helps overcome an acute shortage of these skills.

Following World War II, the cotton textile industry largely migrated from New England to South and most of the skilled workers went along. The textile industry in Rhode Island, however, has had a renaissance with the advent of synthetic fibers, and plants in the State using them are working regularly. Further expansion and capital investment have been held back, however, because of a shortage of skilled labor. Neither could existing equipment be tied up for training nor the scarce skilled workers be spared to conduct training. The Rhode Island Textile Association sought help and the result has been the new center, supported by Manpower funds, which opened in January 1965.

Training emphasis has been on weavers and loom fixers, and is directed to unemployed persons who live in Rhode Island and who have had no experience in the textile industry. Plans are now being developed to use the center to upgrade skills of workers already in the industry during night classes. Longer range plans include developing it into a regional school to provide a pool of skilled labor for the whole northeastern textile industry.

A Manpower Center Emphasis—Needs of a Region

The Southern Ohio Manpower and Technical Training Center is a solution to the employment problems of a region. Located in Jackson, it is designed to serve a 21-county area. The center occupies a converted office building, and five adjacent workshop facilities. Curricula responsive to the labor market needs of the region were developed. Multiple-skill training was planned so that it could be expanded, adapted, changed, or shortened to meet rapidly changing needs. Course lengths range from 6 to 50 weeks. Remedial education is provided in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

The 90-percent record of placement of this center's graduates is made even more significant by the fact that nearly all trainees were unemployed at the time of enrollment and had little hope of finding work.

A Manpower Center Emphasis—Increasing the Skill Level of Workers

Northern Michigan University, at Marquette, with Manpower funds, assumed the task of providing technical training for the entire Upper Peninsula region. Courses were tailor made to give realistic training for specific shortage occupations in the aircraft industry, electronic data processing, and skilled machine tool trades. Basic education is offered, too, although two-thirds of the trainees selected possess a high school diploma or its equivalent—a much higher educational achievement than the average Manpower trainee

A class of business reproduction machine technicians learning about the fine points of offset operation.

Figure 7.—Manpower Training Course Offerings

1. *Regular Institutional Occupational Training Courses in Operation as of January 1966:*
    - Typist
    - Stenographer (entry)
    - Meat cutter
    - Diemaker, steel rule
    - Auto mechanic, service station
    - Coin machine repair
    - Stenographer
    - Computer mechanic
    - Washing machine serviceman
    - Gas appliance serviceman
    - Offset pressman
    - Practical nurse
    - Office machine serviceman
    - Building maintenance man
    - Bookkeeping machine operator
    - Sewing machine repairman
    - Auto mechanic
    - Hand weaver
2. *Preemployment Project—(in cooperation with Haryou-ACT)*
3. (*Umbrella Project*) *Broad-Area Occupational Training, With Basic Education, and Individual and Group Guidance:*
    - Auto services
    - Costume jewelry
    - Electronics
    - Printing
    - Woodworking
    - Building services
    - Machine shop
    - Silk screen
    - Hospital orderly
    - Commercial occupations
    - Distributive occupations
    - Merchandising occupations
    - Metal fabricating
    - Food preparation
4. (*Umbrella Project*) *Specific Occupational Training:*
    - Stenographer
    - Grocery checker
    - Shipping clerk
    - Salesclerk
    - Furniture refinisher
    - Typist
    - Building maintenance man
    - Television service and repair
    - Machine operator, general
    - Gas appliance repairman
    - Bookkeeping machine operator
    - Keypunch-verifier operator
    - Duplicating machine operator
    - Draftsman, architectural
    - Metal fabricator
5. *Regular Institutional Occupational Training Courses Approved and Awaiting Start:*
    - Shoe repairman
    - Edge stitcher
    - Salesperson, general
    - Locksmith
    - Envelope machine setup man
    - Screw machine operator (Swiss)
    - Machine cutter
6. *Occupational Training Proposals Awaiting Approval and Funding:*
    - Medical records clerk
    - Surgical technician
    - Hospital orderly
    - Auto seat cover installer
    - Diemaker, layout
    - Inhalation therapy technician
    - Practical nurse
    - Plastic bag machine operator
    - Structural ironworker
    - Patrolman
    - Computer mechanic
    - Machine operator, general
    - Sheet metal worker
7. *Proposals Being Developed:*
    - Siding applicator
    - Prosthetist
    - Audiovisual technician
    - Cash register serviceman
    - Machinist
    - Auto driving instructor
    - Structural ironworker
    - Library bookbinder
    - Benchman, optical

across the Nation. The age levels in this center range from 17 to 59 years of age. So far, more than 1,000 trainees have been enrolled, and the graduates are becoming part of the skilled workers resource for the area.

A Manpower Center Emphasis—The City Training Center

Many of the major metropolitan centers now have Manpower training centers. They are developing a fairly typical pattern: A variety of skill choices, basic education, occupational exploration, individual pacing, and retention of trainees until they reach a level of employability.

The Detroit center operated one section which has trained more than 1,000 individuals in ages ranging from 22 to 65, in 13 different occupational areas; another section for youth from 16 to 21 who are out of school and unemployed, is designed to handle more than 1,300 individuals and train them in 1 of 16 occupations.

Since the Detroit center opened in the fall of 1964, more than 80 percent of the trainees who have completed courses are employed in occupations for which they were trained, or in training-related occupations.

In New York City, the Umbrella Project served more than 1,000 individuals in 1965 and is set to accommodate some 4,000 trainees in its second year. A swinging-door policy has been established for moving trainees from basic education, to specific skill development at a pace determined by ability. This plan helps to keep all training positions filled. Figure 7 illustrates the current offerings of the New York City project.

A Manpower Center Emphasis—The Comprehensive Skill Testing

The Manpower Act specifies that training is to be undertaken only when there is a reasonable expectation of employment. There has been no dearth of jobs available, but in the beginning there was an excessive screen-out of potential trainees among the chronically unemployed—particularly youth and older workers. They needed considererable job orientation, and information about the world of work, to make them trainable with reasonable expectation of success.

Some local project directors, in cooperation with State education officials, have developed a comprehensive technique to test skill potentials of trainees in basic education classes. This is always done in a facility separate from the job training site. The plan includes not only remedial instruction prerequisite to occupational training, but a schedule of occupational exploration to help the trainees determine their job choices. A trainee may make models in carpentry, perhaps build a small radio, work on house wiring, or try other occupational tasks until his aptitude is found.

After completion of this course, individuals are assigned to appropriate vocational education schools or Manpower training projects.

Comprehensive skill testing facilities are now operating in Sioux Falls, S. Dak.; Des Moines, Iowa; Witchita, Kans.; St. Louis, and Kansas City, Mo.; Duluth, Minn.; and Omaha, Nebr. Under development are facilities for Bismarck, N. Dak., and the twin cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis, Minn.

The Future

The Manpower centers, even in their combined variety, will not absorb all or most of the institutional training. There is a continuing need for single-course projects, an expansion of individual referrals to courses in public and private schools, and on-the-job training. But the Manpower center, with multiple-occupation offerings is a first-rate training mechanism—particularly for large urban areas.

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Chapter V
Basic Education in Manpower Training

The regulations issued by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to implement the Manpower Act define basic education as "elementary level education, usually in the general areas of reading, writing, language skills, and arithmetic, given in order to enable the trainee to pursue a program of occupational training."

The original Manpower Act of 1962 made no specific reference to basic education. The specification of it in a subsequent amendment to the act, and the lengthening of the period of training to accommodate it when necessary to accomplish occupational training, has become one of the most important parts of the program.

There are not adequate measures, either quantitatively or qualitatively, of what is actually being done in basic education as a part of Manpower training. Steps are being taken to improve reporting in this area. Nevertheless, some data are available and this chapter summarizes significant information about the scope, meaning, and general success of basic education under the Manpower Act.

The Extent of the Need

The extent of the need for basic education in Manpower training became evident from the number of persons who were screened from training because they did not achieve high enough scores in tests for language skills, either written or verbal, or in arithmetic, to be referred for occupational training. A further measure of need (and an indication that the problem will be persistent) is shown by the large number of adults in the general population who do not possess adequate educational attainments for job training.

Students in basic education class absorbed in their work to prepare themselves for job training.

In the first year of the program, it became apparent that there was a deficiency in that very few illiterate and semiliterate people were included—only the cream of the unemployed was being referred and accepted for Manpower training, which, of course, did not fully serve the program's purposes. In 1963 there were more than 800,000 illiterate and semiliterate persons in the unemployed labor force. Or to describe the problem another way, the local employment service offices were forced to screen out about eight persons for every one accepted for referral to a training project. An important factor in this high screen-out rate was that many candidates did not have the basic educational qualifications to reach even the threshold of occupational competence, or entry into training.

Twenty-three percent of the workers in the United States have 8 years of education or less. (This is only half what it was a generation ago.)

Approximately 2.7 million adults in America have never been in school. About 11 million of them have less than a fifth grade education.

And it cannot be assumed that performance level necessarily equals completed grade level. In a special survey of Manpower trainees, it was disconcerting to discover that 20 percent of those who required basic education courses were high school graduates.

To be sure, some illiterate and semiliterate people have unskilled or semiskilled jobs. In 1965 the number of people in unskilled employment picked up slightly. But unskilled labor is precarious employment at best. Also, higher educational levels are being demanded throughout the economy. Adult basic education will be a necessity for as far ahead as we can see.

The Legislative Mandate

The Congress enacted amendments on December 19, 1963, which directed the Secretary of Labor to refer persons for training to correct an inadequate educational background and thus enable them to "pursue courses of occupational training of a type for which there appears to be reasonable expectation of employment." Training allowances were extended for 20 weeks, to provide a period of basic education within a maximum total training allowance period of 72 weeks.

A number of teaching techniques are used. Here a trainee learns fundamentals of mathematics with cuisenaire rods.

Congressional hearings which preceded the 1965 amendments to the Manpower Act, brought out that this was still not enough to reach into the genuinely hard-core cases of unemployment and to prepare the individuals for work. Therefore, in 1965 the Manpower Act was amended again to extend training allowances up to 104 weeks. This flexibility is necessary to accommodate the severely disadvantaged in basic education courses, and, too, to permit adequate time to train in some high skill occupations.

The bulk of enrollments in basic education and related preoccupational training are found in multiple-occupation projects. A larger volume of basic education is built into special youth projects than into other projects. Regular projects enrolled 57 percent in basic education; special youth projects enrolled 82 percent.

Table 1 summarizes the preliminary data by project and by numbers of trainees.

Table 1.—Summary: Special Survey of Basic Education [1]

Kind of project	Number of projects	Approvals	Enrollments [2]	
			Total	In basic education
Multiple-occupation projects	179	99,000	49,700	34,200
Youth	110	47,100	26,200	21,600
Regular	69	51,900	23,500	12,600
Single occupation projects with basic education	134	5,900	4,900	3,800
Youth	29	1,200	900	700
Regular	105	4,700	4,000	3,100

[1] Department of Labor data are preliminary since no report was received from 2 States and only on a few projects in 2 other States.

[2] Enrollment data are through Apr. 15, 1965.

Characteristics of Trainees in Basic Education

It is possible to draw a profile of trainee characteristics that is significant.

For both whites and nonwhites more than twice as many men as women are in basic education courses. A comparison of enrollees in basic education with all trainees enrolled in institutional projects in 1964 is shown in table 2.

Table 2

Sex and race	Basic education enrollees (Percent)	All enrollees (Percent)
Total	100	100
Male	70	59
Female	30	41
White	51	72
Nonwhite	49	28

The level of formal education of trainees in basic education is, as might be expected, considerably lower than that of all trainees. More than a fourth of the basic education enrollees had completed less than eight grades, but in all institutional projects only 7 percent reported this low level of schooling.

The distribution of basic education enrollees by grade completed compares with all trainees enrolled in institutional projects in 1964 as shown in table 3.

Table 3

Grade completed	Basic education enrollees (Percent)	All enrollees (Percent)
Total	100	100
Less than 8th grade	27	7
8th grade	15	9
9th through 11th grade	38	31
12th grade	19	46
Over 12th grade	1	7

Enrollees in basic education are younger, on the average, than other trainees. However, persons 45 years of age and older make up a larger proportion of the basic education group than of all trainees. See table 4.

Table 4

Age of enrollees	Basic education enrollees (Percent)	All enrollees (Percent)
Total	100	100
Under 19	22	14
19-21	27	23
22-44	38	52
45 and over	13	11

The high proportion of young people among the basic education trainees is reflected in the degree of attachment to the labor force. Forty-three percent of the trainees in basic education reported less than 3 years of prior gainful employment compared with only 36 percent of all trainees. However, nearly 3 in 10 of those receiving basic education showed 10 years or more of gainful employment. See table 5.

Table 5

Years of gainful employment	Basic education enrollees (Percent)	All trainees (Percent)
Total	100	100
Less than 3 years	43	36
3-9 years	29	38
10 or more years	28	26

The data on duration of unemployment prior to training indicate a larger proportion of basic education trainees (almost 4 out of 10) with a shorter (under 5 weeks) span of unemployment than all trainees (slightly more than 4 out of 10). The long-term unemployed represent 43 percent of the basic education trainees, only slightly less than the 46 percent for all trainees. See table 6.

Table 6

Prior unemployment	Basic education enrollees (Percent)	All trainees (Percent)
Total	100	100
Unemployed under 5 weeks	38	31
Unemployed 5-14 weeks	20	23
Unemployed 15-26 weeks	12	13
Unemployed 27 weeks or more	31	33

A smaller proportion of enrollees in basic education is eligible for regular or youth training allowances than is the case with the whole trainee group in institutional projects (51 percent versus 61 percent).

Primary wage earners (earning at least 60 percent of family income) are present in basic education training in almost the same proportion as in all institutional training (56 percent and 58 percent).

Whereas unemployment insurance claimants were 19 percent of persons enrolled in institutional training in 1964, they were but 8 percent of the basic education enrollees.

The proportion of public assistance recipients in basic education, 11 percent, slightly exceeded the 9 percent in all institutional projects.

Materials and Methods in Basic Education

The methods, materials, and systems used in basic education cover a wide range indeed. There are numerous combinations possible with various kinds of programed instruction, audiovisual equipment and electronic machines. The degree of experimentation and innovation that is going on in basic education in Manpower courses is encouraging even though it presents a formidable problem of measurement because so many variables are represented.

A trainee uses Keystone machine as a teacher records responses.

The Initial Teaching Alphabet System is used in some literacy courses and in remedial reading. A color coded phonetic system is also used in some projects.

Basic readers of different types are used. It is important to note that materials developed for children and for elementary school reading instruction are not suitable for adults. The *Dick and Jane* series obviously would not work in Manpower courses (for reasons other than that Dick and Jane had experiences as limited and banal as their vocabularies). Instead comprehensive materials about *Ben and Joan* have been used in Manpower classes. These two individuals have the same problems adult trainees have. They learn that "employers ask strange questions"; they "apply for a job"; they "lose a job"; they study "rules for keeping a job."

Motivation, not only for developing literacy skill, but for occupational development, is built by giving trainees an opportunity to work out their own problems by counseling and rewarding educational experiences.

While it may be time now to make more considered evaluations of different techniques with a view to identifying more efficient ones, it also is important that teacher enthusiasm and dedication is not dampened by rigid standardization. We have lived too long with the illusion that America is more literate than it is. Manpower training has helped expose the basic education problem, and is one of the best experimental laboratories working towards the solution.

In coping with the language deficiencies of the trainees, it must be realized that there is a cultural problem that may or may not have any ethnic or racial base. The language spoken by some disadvantaged people is idiomatic. A jargon has developed so that, although the individuals may be able to communicate in their own groups, they have difficulty doing so with others. They must learn standard English to be able to get along in the world of employment.

Present standard tests cannot cope with the different idioms of the individuals tested. When these barriers are cracked, one often finds some heartening upward changes in test scores. This should promote restraint in the use of words such as "hard-core" and "alienated youth," to help prevent an aura of pathology from surrounding people unable to find jobs. Adverse images inhibit training possibilities—not to mention job placement.

The Prime Requirements for Basic Education in Manpower Training

The prime requirement for teaching basic education is flexibility—in time, materials, and methods. It must also be related to occupational training.

An effective approach to motivating learning may be to share equally the morning and afternoon hours for occupational training and remedial or basic education.

In any case, the provisions for basic education should fit the needs of the trainee and the job for which he is preparing. Basic education should help the individual prepare for the work environment. When properly integrated into basic education techniques, the occupational focus adds greatly to motivating trainees to learn the basic skills in language and computation.

The question is: How much basic education is enough? Costs rise when basic education must be built into a project. The only reasonable answer is that basic education should extend for whatever time is necessary to reach a required level of performance. Less than that is clearly inadequate.

Results and Needs

A wide range of achievement has been reported in basic education. It appears that different methods are equally able to advance reading and arithmetic grade levels by as much as 2 years, in a matter of weeks. Some projects report such results after less than 200 hours of instruction. But these hours may be spread over 20 or more weeks, depending on the time periods over which these hours have been integrated with the occupational training phases. This is an illustration of why it is difficult to report a single performance profile in basic education.

The gross results seem encouraging. And it is possible to identify several factors which contribute to the results:

Trainees are not confronted with traditional means of evaluation—especially by report cards.

Trainees enjoy a relationship with each other which was not always possible in the regular school setting. They generally start off from the same base. This fellowship spans age differences in the same class.

The trainees are encouraged to compete with themselves, and many of the programed techniques permit each to work at his own pace without invidious comparisons being drawn.

Trainees see the relationship between educational achievement and success in the employment world.

However, more must be learned about the methods and approaches which helped the trainee help himself, and to collate and disseminate those which have been most successful. This is essential to accelerate the development of guidelines for basic education curricula and to aid the development of those which might specify given levels of achievement for particular occupational titles. Trainees' progress in basic education is often related to physical condition and mental attitude. There is a need to ensure that services, such as physical examinations with attendant corrections and counseling, are available as required.

The Manpower program is committed to an assault on the enclaves of unemployment which are hard-core for the reason that the people out of work lack the ability to take occupational training. If the program is to serve all of the educable individuals in this group, basic education and the related supportive services as part of the total program should be given increasing emphasis.

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Chapter VI

The Recruitment and Training of Teachers for Manpower Training

The high degree of dedication and motivation shown by the teachers made the program's success possible. To a considerable extent, the teachers have been taken for granted. It is necessary to do more than acknowledge a debt to them. The time has come to give more attention to the recruitment and retention of these men and women, to give more support to their preservice and inservice training, to provide equality for them (with other teachers) in fringe benefits and salaries. Their ranks will provide a new source for the expanded number of vocational teachers that the Nation will require in the years ahead.

Recruiting Manpower Teachers

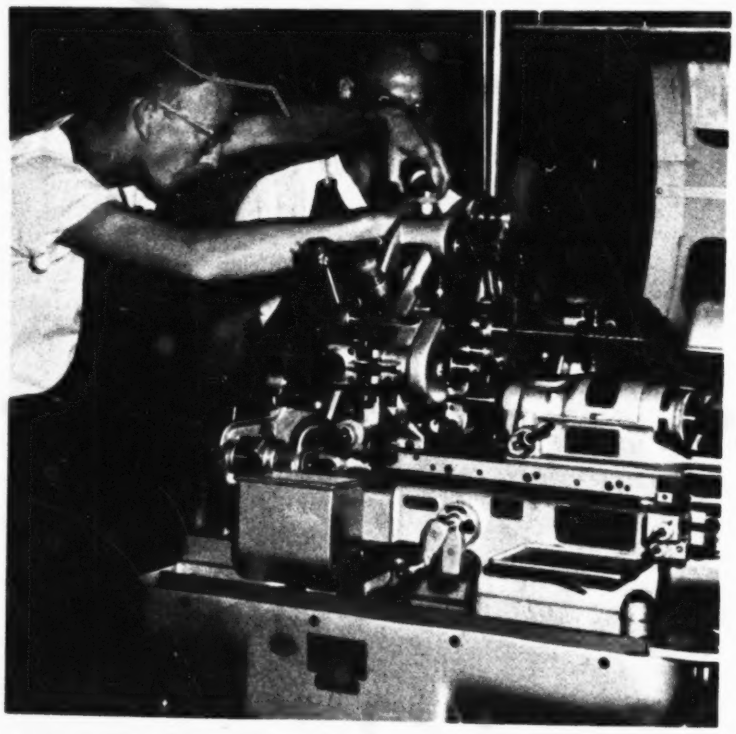
The initial cadre of teachers for the program came from the ranks of regular vocational education teachers. But just as the regular vocational education facilities became inadequate to hold the expanding volume of Manpower trainees, or to accommodate the special needs of many projects, so the corps of regular vocational education teachers has not been adequate to fill the teacher requirements of the program. School systems differ widely in the degree to which they utilize certified vocational education teachers full time in the Manpower program. Even those released for part-time instruction are generally held to a night or two per week. Instructors must come increasingly from the trades and from industry and they have brought some positive values. Many have native teaching ability, along with up-to-date industrial knowledge. Nevertheless, recruitment has been more hectic than is desirable.

A school system cannot, in most cases, begin recruiting teachers until after the formal approval of a training project has been received. Sixty days is the maximum time granted to a school system to start a program after its approval. Contracts with the teachers usually cannot be signed much before the start of a project, for there is no way to pay them until the project begins. Teachers are in short supply and sometimes courses are delayed solely because of difficulty in recruiting.

Many means of outreach for teachers are used. The local employment service, universities which offer vocational teacher training, newspaper advertising, and personal contacts in the education and business communities are used. The Manpower program has no budget authority for advertising, but the personnel departments of some school systems advertise using their own funds. For some of the office occupations, substitute teacher lists may be tapped, but there are few lists of that kind in most vocational categories. Where more sophisticated training is demanded, the business and trade union members of the local advisory committee are requested to help.

Many interviews usually are required to get qualified teachers. Even after successful completion of a project, it may not be possible to retain a teacher, unless a new project with a course in his specialty is scheduled to start almost immediately. Placement results of the first program and a new certification of need are usually required before a second project can be approved.

Planning for a second project should begin some months before a first one is completed. Large city systems have shown more capability to do this and the Manpower training centers or



An instructor at the Evansville, Ind., center shows trainee the lubrication system on a Swiss automatic lathe.

multiple-occupation projects make for the continuity necessary to provide teacher stability.

Part-time Teaching in Manpower

Random sampling suggests that there is much part-time teaching in the manpower program. Many regular vocational education teachers are released only for part-time work in Manpower courses—to do more would reduce their efficiency in their regular jobs. Similarly, some teachers who come from the trades and industry, can only give part-time help.

The widespread use of part-time teachers is not necessarily a defect. When prevocational sections of training are distinguished from the occupational elements, for example, part-time specialists can combine to do a job better than a single full-time person who could not span all the specialties. One example of this occurred when a company's chief engineer, who desperately needed structural steel layout men, agreed to teach the occupational elements of the course, if a teacher was provided for the shop mathematics portion. In other cases professional glass blowers were used to train chemical laboratory assistants in the art, while other teachers handled the related subject matter.

Some sound techniques have been supported and some new developments in team teaching have resulted from the situation. But while necessity may be the mother of invention, and improvisations may lead to new discoveries, these should not be solely depended on to meet the problems of adequate supply and quality in an expanding program.

Salaries and Fringe Benefits for Manpower Teachers

Salaries and fringe benefits (pension fund participation, social security rights, unemployment compensation, etc.) present problems. Salaries are usually paid on an hourly basis, and often teachers employed in the program on this basis do not participate in the usual fringe benefits given to other teachers.

The hourly rates paid to Manpower teachers may average higher than the hourly average for regular teachers, for sometimes a premium has to be paid to acquire the person wanted. But when provisions for fringe benefits—such as sick leave—are lacking, Manpower instructor pay does not compare favorably with that of other teachers.

Some school systems have preferred to keep the Manpower staff at arms length, so to speak. They have denied emergency teacher certification, if such would lower their general State aid support. There is some indication that such school systems have feared that the program might be temporary, and they have not wanted to contract for these teachers in a way that might impose a continuing financial burden if the program lapsed. Some large city systems permit payments by Manpower teachers into a pension fund, with rights to withdraw contributions if teaching ceases, but most systems have not made this provision.

A few States do not permit school boards to treat these teachers with equality, and in other instances a Manpower teacher cannot receive unemployment compensation if he is unemployed after a project ends, even though in previous employment he had those rights.

There can be little doubt that inequities such as these inhibit the recruitment and retention of good teachers. There is no Federal authority to correct this. It can be hoped that State and local authorities will take the initiatives that are needed to correct at least some of the inequities.

Certifying Manpower Teachers

Certification of Manpower teachers, if given, follows the pattern of State administered requirements for regular vocational teachers. That pattern consists of the following steps:

Emergency Certificate.—This lasts only until the end of the year in which it is issued.

Vocational Trade Extension Certificate.—This can be given for 3 years to teach shop or laboratory subjects in extension courses. It is renewable, but no college level course work is required.

Interim Standard Certificate.—This is issued for 2 years and cannot be renewed. It may be obtained by a person with a high school diploma, a minimum of 2 years work experience beyond the learner's stage and on completion of a 10-hour noncredit course.

Standard Vocational Certificate.—This requires 12 hours of specified college instruction and a comprehensive examination. It can be issued for 3 years and is renewable if, during the 3 years it is in effect, the teacher performs satisfactorily and completes 18 semester hours of specified college instruction. After the completion of 60 hours of specified college instruction and 3 years of successful teaching, this certificate may be made permanent.

Most teachers hired full-time come from private industry or self-employment, with little or no prior teaching experience. The school system hiring them gives them the required 10-hour noncredit course that has been mentioned. They then may be given the emergency certificate, or, if requirements are met, the interim standard vocational certification. Thereafter, however, to improve certification, the Manpower teacher must move through the steps outlined above. But where courses run in evening hours, and university extension courses are set up in evening hours to accommodate day-time teachers, there has been a practical limitation on Manpower teaching personnel to acquire the academic background for higher certification.

Steps are being explored in various places to make available college level courses for teachers who wish to achieve certification. Steps might also be taken to encourage credit for experience. Manpower programs have provided a much wider range of vocational training than ever before in the educational system. Many courses are of a specialized nature and a formal teaching certificate may not be the best test of competence. It is sound policy to take technically competent people from the trades and industry. Also some of these persons have a high degree of natural talent for teaching. This ought to be recognized.

Generally, Manpower teachers are given an intensive 10-hour course in teaching methods, before starting to teach, if they have had no prior teaching experience. From then on, most have an informal in-service training. It would be desirable to structure more in-service training, and also to devise more preservice training. Institutes for teachers might be developed and supported with Manpower funds. The need for more occupational training will grow, and so will the demand for teachers. Maintenance of proper standards does not require limits so restrictive that they result in a lock-out.

The program has developed, and used effectively, many teacher aides and counselor aides—some of these from the indigenous groups of disadvantaged whom it has served. To avoid creating dead-end jobs for these people, effort should be made to help the more able of them to develop further in these fields.

As the service occupations grow, and new occupations emerge, many technical occupation associations are being asked to take a new look at skill utilization requirements, to arrange for new levels on a job ladder and also to devise new ways by which individuals can climb it. Educators will have to ask no less of themselves than they do of others.

A Resource Pool for New Vocational Teachers

Regular vocational education has its own teacher shortage, at the same time that its needs are expanding and the new area vocational schools are developing.

The three major areas in which a baccalaureate degree is customarily obtained before teaching in vocational education are: agriculture, home economics, and business and commercial programs. Many teachers are graduated, yet there is severe attrition from teaching.

Men in vocational agriculture are drained off into agricultural extension work, farm implement sales, and service in industrial agriculture, or school administration. Vocational agriculture educators say that their number one problem is a short teacher supply.

Few home economics graduates have gainful employment in mind. Home economics is predominantly a female interest, and the graduates tend to marry early.

The schools which train in business and distributive occupations have fallen behind in keeping up with the expanding occupations in business and office work. Teachers for these new fields can be

A teacher dramatically illustrates a point to a class of student stenographers.

from graduates in business administration, even if they lack education credits.

Approximately 1,000 degrees in trade and industrial education are granted annually. But this does not represent 1,000 new teachers, since some who earn degrees are already teaching. More than 50 percent of teachers in trade and industrial occupations are recruited from industry and many of them finally obtain one or two degrees.

It is to be noted that industries are also enlarging their training programs. This is desirable, because the Nation's developing economy and its growing demand for training and retraining will take all the resources of both public and private institutions. It means, too, that industry will be a competitor with schools.

Those schools which make it difficult for Manpower teachers to achieve standing are shortsighted, to say the least. More Manpower teachers are needed, and some who could be attracted to vocational education as a full-time career, would help meet a shortage of teachers in that field.

The Manpower Teachers

Ad hoc arrangements to provide instructional staff have characterized the program. But the problems of staffing have been met. Observers who have been concerned about Manpower teacher recruitment have also been impressed with the dedication, teaching interest, and quality of instruction. The teacher turnover rate has been low. There have been few student complaints about poor teaching. Some teachers have given up tenure in the regular school system for the excitement and challenge to their skill that Manpower training presents. Others have done this in order to have the freedom and encouragement to experiment and innovate. A service motive in the highest sense of the word has been noted—namely, to relate to people wherever they are and to make education the midwife of their full potential.

Needed Improvements

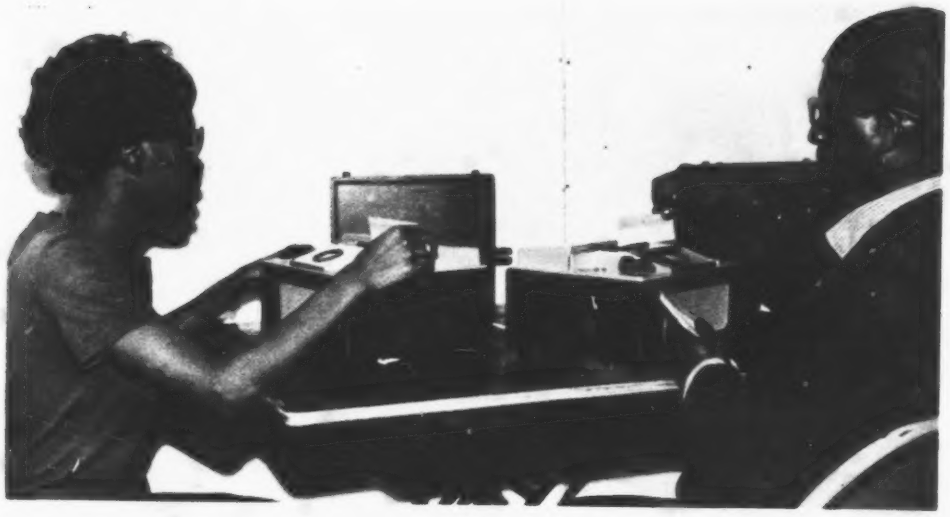
1. It is clearly time to have a thorough description of the teacher problem, and analysis of the data. New reporting forms are being developed, and some selected research into the problem is in order.

2. It would be useful to have a research study on the scope and methods of training in industry, and one that included their standards for, and methods of, teacher recruitment.

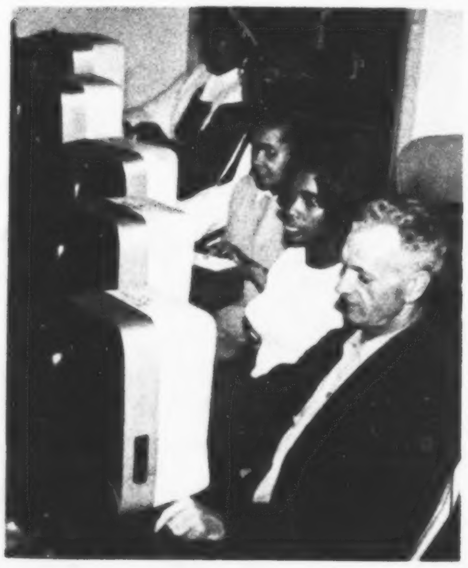
3. In large metropolitan areas where multiple occupation projects and Manpower skill centers are developing, plans should be developed to arrange for smoother repeating of courses. State plans should be encouraged to arrange for as much dove-tailing of projects as possible. The aim is to give greater continuity to the program, and more opportunity for the teachers.

4. There should be exploration of the possibilities of industry-school cooperation in exchanging instructors to keep abreast of new skill developments and occupational trends.

5. Efforts should be made to provide Manpower teachers the same benefits of retirement, sick leave, and fringe benefits available to other teachers.



Students work with special equipment as one part of the audiovisual speech laboratory.



Transfer reading activity using the Craig Reader is effective because it requires a trainee's full attention.

Understanding number concepts requires concentration. Each student is working with an abacus.

Teacher times students taking a dexterity test. Tests help the learner achieve speed and accuracy.

Several different kinds of devices are used for dexterity practice.

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Chapter VII

Methods, Materials, and Techniques in Manpower Training

Adage has it that all that is necessary for education is a log, with Mark Hopkins on one end and a student on the other. The only residue of truth in this is that a good teacher is crucial. Schools have been inundated by a tidal wave of students; at the same time they have had to cope with a quantum jump in the amount of knowledge available. To organize and communicate the new body of knowledge, and to absorb the revolution in technology is an enormous job. This affects Manpower training as well as other areas of education.

Curriculum planning has become a sophisticated art. The amount of knowledge to be gained is so great that time cannot be wasted. This need, combined with the new learning theories about how we gain understanding, has led to the development of devices which improve effectiveness. Even though educational equipment has become a major field of development, these devices cannot substitute for teachers. The teacher who uses them as aids must not only know the subject matter, he must be something of a human relations expert, a technician in operating instruments, and a designer of new modes of communication in using the devices.

Continuing experimentation is necessary. In some areas the body of theory is so limited, that trial and error is required. However, two recent innovations affecting methods and materials have proved themselves: The use of programed instruction and a systems approach to educational planning. These provide the guidelines for new instrumentation, evaluating progress, and developing new training designs.

Programed Instruction

Programed instruction refers to a method of constructing curriculum materials, through which the individual student can achieve the maximum self-development of which he is capable, and do it at his own speed. In its simplest form, the method consists of breaking up the elements of a given subject into small units. These are arranged in a logical sequence that builds from the simple to the more complex. Materials are presented in terms of one subject matter concept or element at a time. A student's response is required for each such element, and if his response is correct, it is immediately confirmed; if his response is incorrect, he is so informed, but helped to reach and understand the right response.

Programed materials are usually presented in a combination text and workbook, inexpensively printed to permit a single time use.

A number of machines have also been developed to present programed materials. Some devices project the individual frames on a screen and use a pushbutton response system. Others combine this with audio explanations. The introduction of these devices into the teaching process has given rise to the misleading label "teaching machine." The basic innovation, however, lies in the art of laying out the program of instruction.

The advantage to the teacher who uses these materials is that factual material is presented uniformly, in an effective, logical sequence enabling a higher average level of class achievement. This relieves both the teacher and the class of the tedium and inefficiency of drill. The time saved can be used for personal guidance. Indeed, at all levels, the teacher can spot more quickly and accurately where each student is having trouble, and give individual service more efficiently and specifically.

However useful gadgets may be in presenting material—and some are very useful—the classroom teacher is indispensable.

The systems approach to course and project design requires careful planning.

Instructor prepares an Edex machine for classroom use with programed tapes.

100
10
1
0
4
6
=3046
FIRE

The video tape being made here is on number place values and will be used many times.

Teacher and students watch one of the video tapes used to supplement other classroom materials.

In programed text study, the student is enabled and encouraged to go at his own pace. He has positive reinforcement for every successful choice, and opportunity to correct errors without suffering adverse public comparison with someone else. Fast learners cover the material quickly and move on to something else. Slow learners, although they take longer, close the performance gap appreciably, and their previously low achievement levels are raised radically.

Programed instruction is now established. Text materials are available in a range of subjects from simple arithmetic to computer language. Use of programed materials is growing in general education, in industrial training, and in the Manpower program.

In Manpower training, programed materials are sometimes specially prepared to combine basic education with occupational skill training. A project in New York City sponsored by the Bedford-Stuyvesant Young Men's Christian Association used a complete line of programed texts developed under contract with Basic Systems, Inc. The contract specified that a set of all materials be deposited with all State vocational education agencies for their use. And individual teachers in Manpower projects at various locations have shown great ingenuity in developing their own programed materials.

The Systems Approach to Course and Project Design

The term "systems analysis" has recently reached the public consciousness with impressive credentials from military and space science. It carries the mystique of being a universal solvent for all problems. Systems analysis, as a concept, is much less esoteric than it sounds, and although it cannot guarantee the solution of all problems, it is a good commonsense way to approach them.

The principle of systems analysis can be described simply, although its execution may take considerable skill. The method first asks what the objectives are that one wishes to accomplish. It then asks of any total structure that is to be devised—and of each part of it—"What does this element do?" The elements of a system must relate to one another in order to accomplish the objectives of the whole. Efficiency of goal achievement governs the design of a project and controls the use of every item within it.

In the Manpower educational process, systems analysis is used to fit curriculum, technology, teaching, counseling, job orientation, job experience, and other elements into a whole that gets the most out of every part. The parts are not conceived as static units to be related only by an abstract logic that might say, for example, that reading skill must precede textbook use. Each part must be considered in dynamic relationship to all other parts.

The systems analysis concept has not had uniform development and application throughout the range of institutional manpower training. In detail, every new project is a task of special design, because the individuals to be trained in each one have unique characteristics and needs. The development of the multiple-occupation training centers particularly has demonstrated the need for the systems approach.

The greatest effort at systems design is occurring in experimental and demonstration projects which are the practical research laboratories of the Manpower training program.

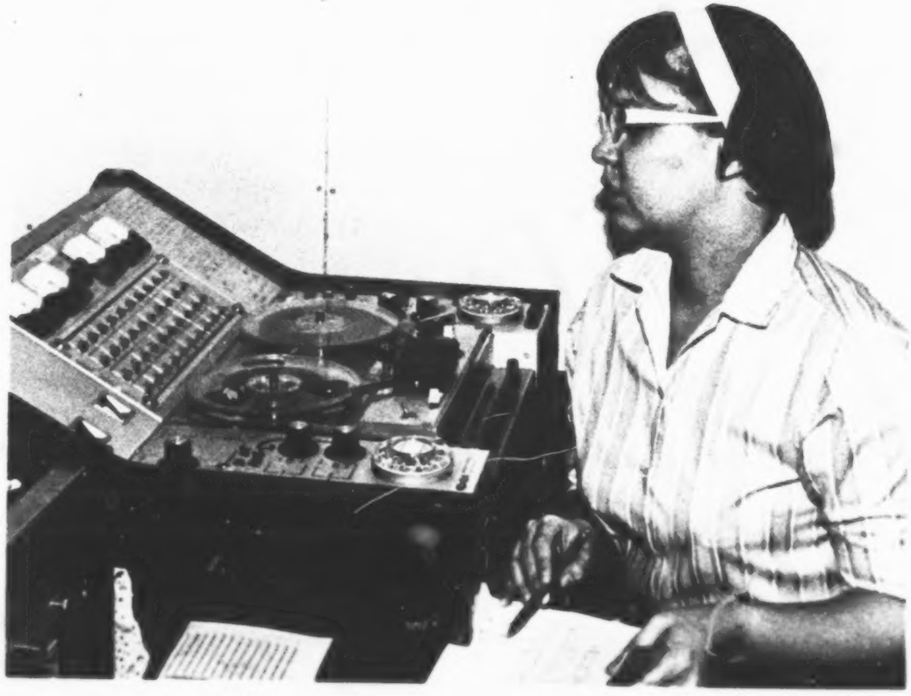
One of the newest of these is Project PEACE (Programs for Educational and Cultural Excellence) operated by several agencies of the Cleveland Catholic Diocese. In this project, comprehensive testing is done and a wide range of educational technology is used. The trainees are men and women, 22 to 55 years old, with previous educational attainment ranging from zero to high school completion. The literacy achievement of entrants ranged from no ability to read to a high of fifth grade level. Some persons with 12 grades of education completed, scored less than the fifth grade level. The objective was to design a program to give all trainees a basic education and a readiness for job training. An illustration of this project follows:

Stage 1.—The students and staff attend orientation sessions for the first 2 days. The trainees are introduced to programed testing, other achievement measurements, and the use of equipment in skill elevation laboratory sessions. They become familiar with audiovisual equipment and tachistoscopic and paced reading materials and equipment.

Laboratory sessions in stage one are compact and fast moving. They open with a 5-minute taped narrative. This relates the personal life of a man and a woman and their efforts to better themselves in everyday living and in the world of work. The story line on the audio tape develops day-by-day and provides the experiential element in this phase of the program. Further elements

The teacher is conducting a listening exercise. The screen is used for the visual exercise which follows.

The watch, write, respond activity requires close attention. The electronic response devices are in the foreground.



The Edex machine records student responses for future review and gives a visual indication of student progress.

of orientation, number concepts, and language sessions are correlated in the context of the story line. The students learn to respond, using electronic devices, to built-in tests on reading and listening. Student misconceptions are corrected before moving on and ineffective material is rewritten.

Each session in this stage is led by a teacher or orientation guide. The teacher is provided with all the teaching materials, including reading films, paper and electronic responder tests, phonics, vocabulary, and outlines of the daily work.

The design of stage one helps to train staff members to work together and plan within the context of the program. It ensures their exposure to an integration of activities before a full-systems approach is implemented.

In this stage a typical work day covers the following:

1. *Laboratory I.*—Foundation reading skills. Nongraded and experience-oriented.
2. *Orientation.*—Counselor conducted. Reading comprehension, social and occupational attitude exploration.
3. *Laboratory II.*—Transfer activities, skill building. This laboratory takes a cultural-developmental approach using graded materials 3 to 8+ concerning people and places in a civic and historical setting. Paced reading. Tests.
4. *Number Concepts.*—Mathematics Reading-Mathematics Laboratory. Teacher planned within context of program.
5. *Language.*—Penmanship, word usage and spelling, phonics-vocabulary. Teacher planned within context of program.
6. *Transfer.*—Reading, manual dexterity, number activities. Use of Bell & Howell language masters, Craig readers, and cartridge tape listening activities.

Stage 2.—The full systems approach is initiated at this point when the staff and trainees are comfortably adjusted to the program and its philosophy. A flexible program that concentrates more on the individual and his needs is put into effect.

In stage two the students are divided into two sections, A and B. Here they move within the section according to their progress and needs. Section A is arranged for large group presentations. It consists of foundation skill elevation and is divided into three laboratory sessions and one counselor orientation session.

This portion of the program utilizes programed instruction, paced reading, testing and trainee electronic response activities. All segments are relatively short and breaks are given frequently. Because the trainees are active participants and are learning daily, these sessions are popular and move fast. Drills are work-related, answers to questions are given, self-evaluation is stressed and daily progress is recognized by trainees and staff.

Laboratory I in section A provides test-taking experience which collects data for diagnostic purposes and for planning. It lasts 30 minutes. All tests are presented on audio tape and are scored by machine. The process is painless and is well accepted by the trainees.

Laboratory II in section A lasts 70 minutes. It concentrates on foundation skill elevation, symbol orientation and tachistocopic paced reading with built-in tests. All materials are adult in concept and are related to money and jobs: "How to get a job," "Kinds of jobs available," "How to keep a job."

Laboratory III in section A takes 30 minutes on cultural and developmental materials on grade levels three through eight. Single line and open frame paced reading practice is provided. Supplementary, high-interest, adult-level materials are introduced.

Orientation for 50 minutes by a counselor covers reading comprehension of material presented in laboratory II. Group discussion centers around the story line of each session and stresses vocational and social attitudes.

Section B lasts 3 hours daily. This segment surrounds and reinforces a 4-hour weekly closed circuit television broadcast schedule. During these sessions, 79 mathematics and language concepts are presented to large groups by a television faculty drawn from industry and business who relate the subjects to jobs.

Followup reinforcement and reruns are used in small group and tutoring situations as needed.

Two hours of work exposure broadcasts on closed circuit TV are scheduled weekly. These programs consist of 15- to 20-minute programs showing jobs and vocational courses that are available. They inform the trainee about many different kinds of jobs and help develop his natural interest.

Section B also provides for transfer activities which include 15 dexterity activities, Craig transfer reading, Bell & Howell language master reading, and speaking and listening activities.

Measurements to Date on Project PEACE

Trainee Characteristics.—A typical trainee is aged 30, married, has 4 children, has never held a permanent job, receives $71 in weekly allowances, will be in training for up to 110 days totalling 682 hours; and spends 6 hours and 15 minutes per day in training.

There are 178 persons currently enrolled and 259 others have applied for entrance. Of the 178 enrolled, 110 are male and 68 are female. There are 101 between the ages of 22 and 39, and 77 of them are 40 years of age or over.

The previous educational attainment of the trainees varies greatly:

Table 1

School grade completed	Number of trainees
0	14
1–4	26
5–8	50
9–12	88

Trainee Progress to Date.—Table 2 shows significant measures of progress during the first 3 months of Project PEACE.

Table 2.—Trainee Progress

Highest school grade completed	Nonverbal G score [1]			Reading grade level		
	Dec. 65	Feb. 66	Mar. 66	Dec. 65	Feb. 66	Mar. 66
12th	105	127	124	4.8	7.8	9.+
8th	70	84	88	3.6	5.4	6.6
0*	0	8	16	0	0	[2] 2.0

[1] The nonverbal G score reflects intelligence. Scores noted here represent the highest achieved in the educational group.

[2] A 2-year grade level increase is the lowest degree of progress registered and represents only one person who had never attended school. (The other 13 who had never attended school are now above that level of increase in reading capability.)

*Fourteen persons had never attended school.

Are the costs of a program with such complex equipment prohibitive? Table 3 presents the data on training costs, which illustrate that costs run below the average institutional training costs for Manpower programs.

Although up to 22 weeks of training is provided for each individual, at the end of 12 weeks a significant number of individuals were employed, or moved to specific skill training in another Manpower project. Table 4 summarizes the training and job status during the first three months of the project.

Table 3.—Training Costs in Project PEACE

[Per trainee]

Division	Per Hour	Weekly	12 Weeks	Total
1. Personnel, total	$0.24	$7.40	$90	$16,470
2. Instructional: Materials, supplies, equipment, testing, production, furniture, service, maintenance	.28	8.75	105	19,215
3. Utilities and rent	.04	1.25	15	2,745
Grand total	$0.56	$17.40	$210	$38,430

Table 4—Training Status

	Total
Trainees now in project	178
Group I	18
II	16
III	35
IV	30
V	29
VI	50
Left training	17
For good reason	12
Quit (no reason given)	5
Employment (type)	11
Machine operator helper	1
Maintenance man	2
Assembler	2
Mattress production worker	2
Project aides	[1] 4
Occupational training (at the Manpower training center or vocational school)	24
Reproduction machine specialist	6
Turret lathe operator	8
Machine operator	9
Baker's helper	1
On-the-job training	3
Furniture assembler	3
Total	233

[1] Four trainees were employed as aides in the project program.

The best of materials and the most sophisticated of techniques, or latest in equipment, have no meaning if they do not serve people. The Manpower program's devotion to people is demonstrated by Project PEACE, which has special capacities to serve disadvantaged people, not by merely talking to them, but in relating to them.

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Chapter VIII
Serving the Minorities

Every American is a member of one or more minority groups. Whatever his church, his national origin, his trade or profession, his social or fraternal associations, he can, at some point be considered a member of a minority. For most Americans this is not an unhappy situation. The integrity of each group, and the mutual respect and tolerance born of cooperation, have grown in that productive and creative pluralism which is the genius of America. But the successes in making diversity productive serve to make more glaring the areas in which the Nation has failed.

The outstanding failure which confronts us—and will until we do the job right—concerns the nonwhite population, 90 percent of whom are Negro. The conditions which kept the Negro in slavery for more than half the life of our Nation give his plight special emphasis.

The Spanish-speaking Americans are another significant minority. These are mostly Mexican-Americans living in our West and Southwest and the Puerto Ricans in the Northeastern cities. Even the American Indian has yet to be integrated in the land his fathers first occupied.

Completely different histories and factors have brought each of these groups face to face with the same fundamental problem: A level of education and training which is too low. This inhibits—and more often prevents—them from realizing a fundamental right: Equality of opportunity.

The residues of history, particularly those of prejudice, cannot be discounted in meeting the problem. But as a first priority, adequate education and training opportunities must be provided for these people. In an immediate sense this means occupational skill training. In this, the Manpower Act has a vital contribution to make and has begun to have some significant success.

The Minority Condition and Unemployment

Steady and determined progress has been made in erasing legal barriers to equal rights for all citizens. Beginning with the historic school desegregation decision of the Supreme Court in 1954 and continuing with the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965, the walls of segregation are being tumbled. America is now a committed nation: There can be no ambiguity about the meanings of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence.

Equality implies many things: Dignity, self-respect, freedom of movement, opportunities for the exercise of talent—and more. In its fullness it goes well beyond economic opportunity, but it nevertheless begins there and is never less than that. There is no real freedom to move if one cannot buy the ticket. There is no potential for talent if one cannot get the training. Dignity and self-respect are not bred in poverty or in the receipt of a handout.

It is ironic that in 1954, the same year in which a decision of the Supreme Court gave impetus to equal opportunity, the rate of unemployment among nonwhites reached twice that of whites, and it has never dropped below that. Table 1 presents the comparative record from 1954 through February 1966.

While aggregate statistics can conceal shocking disparities, the breakdown in table 1 shows that in spite of the growth of the economy, the nonwhite groups continue to bear most of the burden of unemployment. For example, although the national unemployment rate was 3.7 percent in February 1966, the nonwhite unemployment rate

Table 1.—Unemployment Rate for White and Nonwhite Workers 1954–65

Year	Unemployment rate		Nonwhite rate as percent of white
	White	Nonwhite	
1954 [1]	5.0	9.8	196
1955 [1]	3.9	8.7	223
1956 [1]	3.7	8.4	227
1957	3.9	8.0	205
1958	6.1	12.6	207
1959	4.9	10.7	218
1960	5.0	10.2	204
1961	6.0	12.5	208
1962	4.9	11.0	224
1963	5.1	10.9	214
1964	4.6	9.8	213
1965	4.1	8.3	202
1966 (Jan.)[2]	3.5	7.0	200
1966 (Feb.)[2]	3.3	7.0	212

[1] Adjusted to standards adopted in 1957.

[2] Seasonally adjusted,

U.S. Department of Labor.

of 7 percent was more than twice the white unemployment rate of 3.3 percent.

Even more revealing are census tract statistics of any major city. They show unemployment rates among the minorities reaching 10, 15, and even 20 percent—especially among youth and those over 45 years of age.

The gross national product has increased nearly $200 billion in the last several years. But the kinds of jobs that minority group members are drawn into by this economic growth are, for the most part, marginal. The nonwhite minority has traditionally been the last hired and the first fired. Their jobs are low paying, precarious and dead end. For example, more than 35 percent of Mexican-American families are living on incomes of less than $3,000 per year. The Negro proportion at this income level is also high. Although the two to one unemployment ratio between nonwhites and whites has remained unchanged, the real economic gap has widened.

The Prime Need is for Education and Training

Actually, more white persons are living below the poverty level than nonwhite. This does not alter the disproportionate burden which the nonwhites bear, but it does lead us to inquire if there is a common denominator. And there is, in fact, a shared characteristic: Low educational attainment. Unemployment and underemployment are more closely related to lack of education than they are to race. An analysis of the 1960 census makes clear that the highest rate of unemployment is borne by those who, regardless of race, have the least education and training. While one cannot discount the factor of human prejudice, its effects can be mitigated by opportunities for education and training.

There is much to be done to bring educational opportunity to all Americans. The 89th Congress has given the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare a strong mandate to attack educational deprivation. The Manpower program must do its part to help those youth and adults who have failed in school, or who have been failed by the educational establishment, by preparing them for a job.

About 20,000 residents of the Watts District in Los Angeles, Calif., are unemployed and in need of education and training. In New York City, some 80,000 youths between the ages of 16 and 21 are dropouts from school. Most of these are minority group members. The Manpower program should, and does, give special attention to their problems. Its inherent flexibility has stimulated progress in serving minority groups in the public vocational education system and in creating an awareness among employers that they can indeed get trained manpower from this pool.

The Policy of HEW in Manpower Training

The determination of the Secretary's office to ban any form of discrimination in Manpower training antedated the Civil Rights Act of 1964. From the beginning of the Manpower Act in 1962, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare insisted on a firm civil rights clause in the regulations governing its training agreements with the States. Evidence of noncompliance with this clause in setting up institutional training projects has resulted in disapproval of a number of projects in several States.

To further underscore the Department's position, the Office of the Secretary last summer initiated a special advisory review of the program's compliance with title VI of the Civil Rights Act in several major cities: Atlanta, Birmingham, Chicago, Dallas, Detroit, New Orleans, New York, St. Louis, and San Francisco. Review teams were composed of members of the Department's Manpower training staffs in Washington and appropriate regional offices.

During site visits to the projects, the team members conferred with instructors, trainees, counselors, and administrative staff as well as local and State educational officials. The teams sought out and consulted local civil rights leaders,

This New Orleans secretarial trainee class demonstrates the interest with which students respond to instruction.

trade union officers, city officials, and community leaders associated with, or knowledgeable about, the training projects. A searching effort was made to find out if the program was complying with the requirements of title VI.

The teams tried to spot problem situations before difficulties could develop, and to urge local consultation and solution. The Department's aim is to achieve voluntary compliance, if possible, rather than to have a situation deteriorate to a point requiring legal action.

The Department is resolute that its administration of Manpower training be consonant with its responsibilities under the Civil Rights Act.

HEW will continue advisory compliance reviews, and widen their scope to include other metropolitan areas and also smaller communities. The Department is determined that the program's record to date in providing equal and integrated occupational training will be continued—and strenuous efforts will be made to improve the record.

The Record of Service

The Manpower program has trained a larger percentage of nonwhites than their proportion in the ranks of the unemployed. Nonwhites comprise approximately 10 percent of the population and 11 percent of the labor force. They have, however, for years consistently counted for more than 20 percent of the unemployed. In 1965, nonwhites accounted for a third of the total number of trainees. Ninety-four percent of these trainees were Negro. Since the program's inception, the overall percentage of nonwhites in training is over 28 percent.

The percentage of nonwhites has increased with each year. In 1963, nonwhite enrollees in the program comprised 23 percent of the total. In 1964, they represented 30 percent of all institutional trainees. Figure 8 illustrates the comparative data for the last 3 years.

Two-thirds of the nonwhite trainees to date have been between 19 and 34 years of age. More than half have been heads of families or

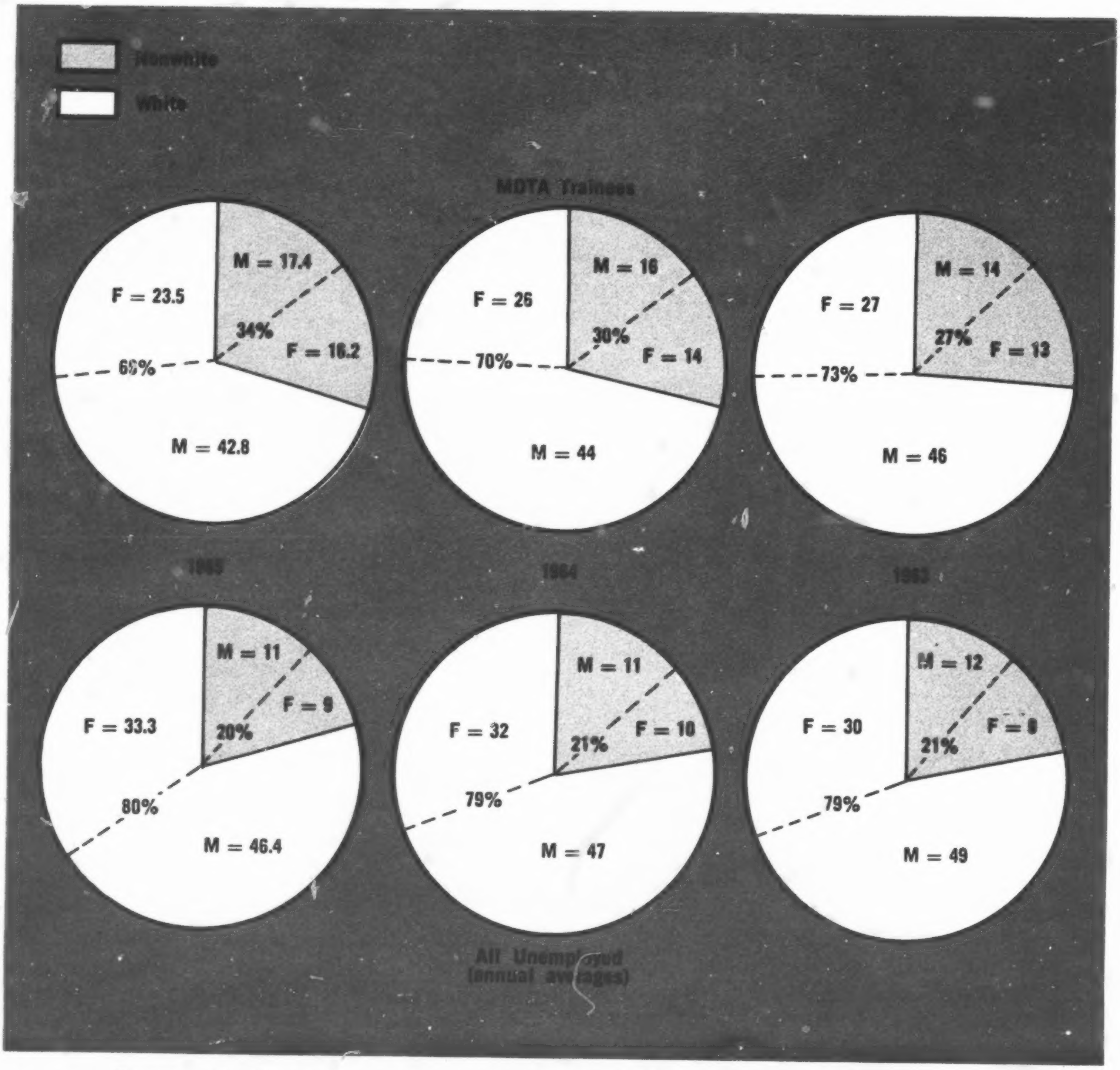


Figure 8.—Nonwhites in Manpower institutional training and in the labor force unemployed.

households. Nearly 60 percent were the primary wage earners.

Forty-six percent had finished high school and another 40 percent had some high school education.

Fifty-four percent of the nonwhite trainees had been unemployed for 3 years or longer. Forty-three percent had been unemployed more than 3½ months prior to enrolling in training. Sixteen percent were receiving public assistance and 12 percent were drawing unemployment insurance benefits before commencing training.

The nonwhite trainees were less attached to the labor force than the white trainees. More whites (60 percent) had been employed more than 3 years. Fewer whites (35 percent) had been unemployed 15 weeks or longer. Fewer whites (9 percent) were on public assistance, but more whites (20 percent) were drawing unemployment compensation at the start of their training.

The percentage of both poorly educated and teenage nonwhite trainees increased in 1965. Table (D-2) in the statistical appendix provides data for detailed comparisons.

Table 2 presents the cumulative numbers trained in the various occupational groups, and

The trainees shown are in the paint shop class of an automobile body repair course in Florida.

Table 2.—Manpower Trainees Enrolled in Courses by Race and Occupational Group (Cumulative to December 1965)

	Total	White	Non-white	Negro	Race not reported
Professional and managerial	25,526	18,558	5,227	4,906	1,741
Clerical and sales	58,394	37,223	16,964	16,133	4,207
Service	33,044	16,210	13,757	13,023	3,077
Agricultural	9,570	6,139	2,025	1,497	1,406
Skilled occupations	77,681	56,557	16,185	14,910	4,939
Semi-skilled occupations	48,825	30,840	14,410	13,600	3,575
Other [1]	20,997	9,627	9,174	8,614	2,196
Overall total	274,037	175,154	77,742	72,683	21,141

[1] Includes primarily prevocational training and categories not reported.

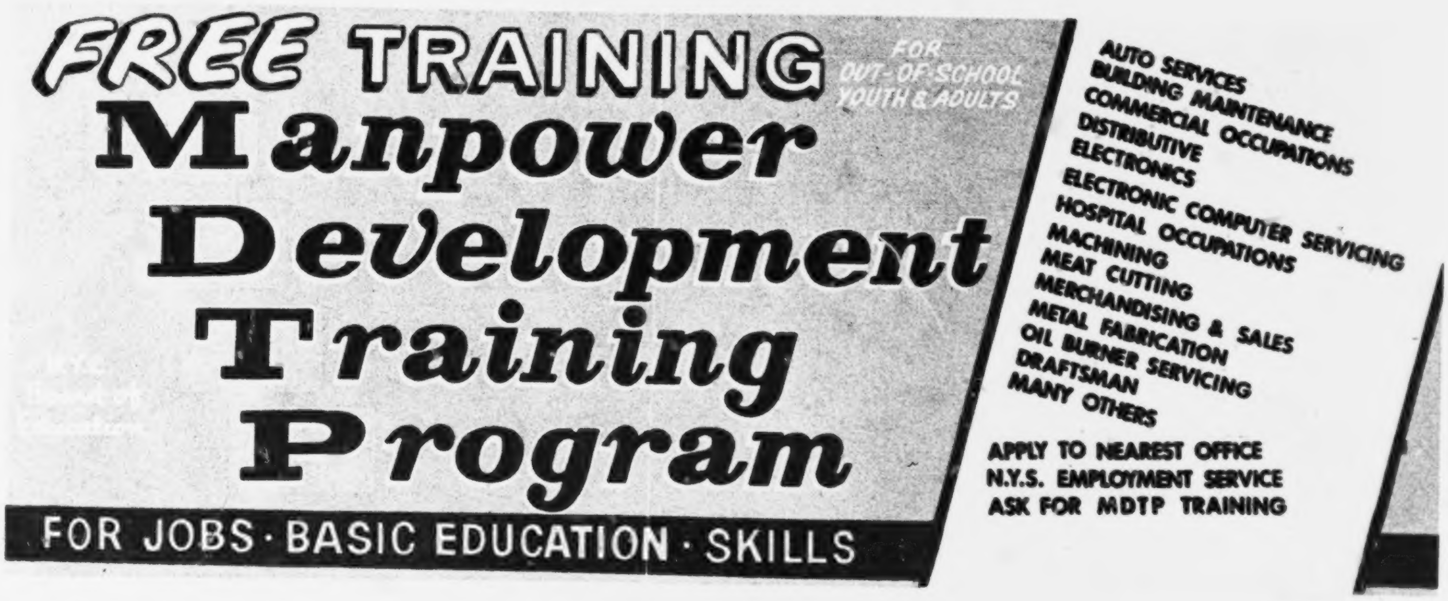
presents evidence that some upgrading has taken place.

The northern industrial States with large metropolitan centers where many minority groups are concentrated (and in which severe pockets of poverty exist) show higher proportion in the State population. Table (A-2) in the appendix shows the number of Negro trainees in each of the 54 States and territories.

The Evaluation

Outreach, recruitment, and assignment to training projects are responsibilities of the U.S. Employment Service. The Department of Labor is increasing the capabilities of the employment service to provide better guidance and counseling service and new centers are to be placed in the neighborhoods where minorities live.

Throughout the country, Manpower training is gaining visibility. More local agencies are assisting in spreading the word among those whom the program can best serve. Educational institutions are also assisting in the drive to get the word where it will do the most good. Figure 9 is a photo of a five-color poster developed by the Office of Education Information Services and Public Relations of the Board of Education of New York City. It is being given free space by New York Subways



FREE TRAINING

FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH & ADULTS

Manpower
Development
Training
Program

FOR JOBS · BASIC EDUCATION · SKILLS

AUTO SERVICES
BUILDING MAINTENANCE
COMMERCIAL OCCUPATIONS
DISTRIBUTIVE
ELECTRONICS
ELECTRONIC COMPUTER SERVICING
HOSPITAL OCCUPATIONS
MACHINING
MEAT CUTTING
MERCHANDISING & SALES
METAL FABRICATION
OIL BURNER SERVICING
DRAFTSMAN
MANY OTHERS

APPLY TO NEAREST OFFICE
N.Y.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
ASK FOR MDTP TRAINING

Figure 9.—This New York City subway poster is one effective way to inform the unemployed about Manpower training.

Advertising and the Transit Authority. This has been described as "effective in reaching those who need help."

1965 Advisory Review on Civil Rights Compliance

The findings of the Department's 1965 Advisory Review on Civil Rights Compliance illustrate the broad accomplishments to date and the continuing challenges to be faced by the program:

1. Institutional programs are integrated. This has been accomplished in all sections of the Nation without incident. Also there is evidence of an increasing integration of training staffs as more nonwhite teachers and counselors participate. Nonwhites are active on advisory committees at all levels.
2. In the South, successful classroom integration of Manpower training programs has generally stimulated the integration of classrooms in vocational education since in many communities the program led the way in educational desegregation.
3. In some northern metropolitan centers, classes may be overwhelmingly nonwhite, especially when located in sections of cities where nonwhites are concentrated. This is not viewed by nonwhite leadership with the same concern as has been de facto segregation in elementary and secondary education. Manpower projects are understood to be different, to meet a vital need of skill training to get a job, and as a retrieval effort to serve those who had failed in, or had been failed by, the schools.

Hairstyling is taught as one part of a beautician training course recently conducted in New Orleans.

4. Adequately trained manpower is braking down prejuduces in employer hiring patterns. The phrase, "I would hire Negroes, but they are not trained and not capable," sometimes masks prejudice. Manpower training is helping to eliminate this subtle barrier to employment. Many employers mean what they say about training and skills—not race—being crucial, and the skepticism of others is eroding. There is reason for confidence that if the training can be accomplished, the placements can be made.

2

The trainees shown are in the paint shop class of an automobile body repair course in Florida.

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A panel at the Manpower Job Development Conference for health service workers discusses hospital worker recruitment problems

To a considerable extent these accomplishments are due to the fact that the Manpower training program is a program without a past. That is, it suffered no weight of bad precedents in segregated training, unequal facilities, or inferior instruction. The program started fresh and with a firmness, and it has won acceptance with a minimum of friction.

Continuing Challenges

1. Outreach must be vigorously promoted. The innovations which have promise must be watched carefully. More sophisticated techniques must be developed for testing occupational aptitude to eliminate cultural bias in tests and to get truer readings for placement purposes.

2. Wage levels must be carefully evaluated in determining training programs and training needs. The Manpower Act has no mandate to enforce wage levels, and yet these can inhibit the development of training programs.

In metropolitan areas, minority group leaders have stressed the urgency for training related to a possible job. Yet they do not want to see people trained only for low-paying, dead-end jobs.

In rural areas, the picture is different. Often the literacy level of the nonwhite population is low. Training for its own sake is sometimes urged, even when there is no prospect of an immediate job or at best one whose wages may still leave a full-time worker below the $3,000 per year level. Even so, in some places these wages are considerably more than public assistance payments.

3. Communication among community groups, trade unions, and employers—though growing—must be stimulated. This can do much to provide more skill training opportunities, and to help identify the training needs for more than entry-level occupations. This will enable a person to get started on a job ladder on which he can climb as high as his motivation and skill can carry him.

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Chapter IX

Coordinating Federal Manpower Training Programs

A review of the list of Federal legislation which supports training reveals that much of it has been focused on particular groups. For example, the Vocational Rehabilitation Act specializes in occupational rehabilitation for handicapped persons. Recent legislation to establish a national technical institute for training the deaf is designed to answer a long-standing need. Orphans of veterans get educational and training aid.

There is legislation to support the development of technical and scientific personnel at advanced professional levels in recognition of the need for more scientists, engineers, and professional health manpower. And other Acts provide for occupational training at below baccalaureate level—for example, the Vocational Education Act, the Manpower Development and Training Act, and the Economic Opportunity Act.

Three different Federal agencies have responsibility for these Acts: The Department of Labor, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Office of Economic Opportunity. In some cases, two or all three of these agencies must cooperate in the coadministration of programs.

The principal questions which arise are: Is there a duplication of effort in occupational training? And, how efficient is the coordination of effort, both at the Federal level, and at State and local levels?

The problem is not duplication or overlap so much as it is one of reinforcement, coordination, and the elimination of gaps in service.

Not Duplication, But Reinforcement

Duplication of effort is controlled by various provisions in the laws such as maintenance of effort clauses, regulations, or by operational arrangements. When a new Act supplements another Act, maintenance of effort clauses are customarily written into the new legislation. The Manpower Development and Training Act specifies that the States must not reduce their levels of expenditures for education and training under the George-Barden Act, the Smith-Hughes Act, or under the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

The Vocational Education Act cannot pay for the training of anyone who is eligible to receive Manpower training allowances. The program, however, can make individual referrals to vocational education programs, if Manpower funds pay for the extra costs incurred in training the individuals referred.

Some legislation authorizes training through the provisions of other Acts.—The Trade Expansion Act authorizes training for workers displaced by foreign trade competition, under the training provisions of other legislation, for example, the Manpower Act.

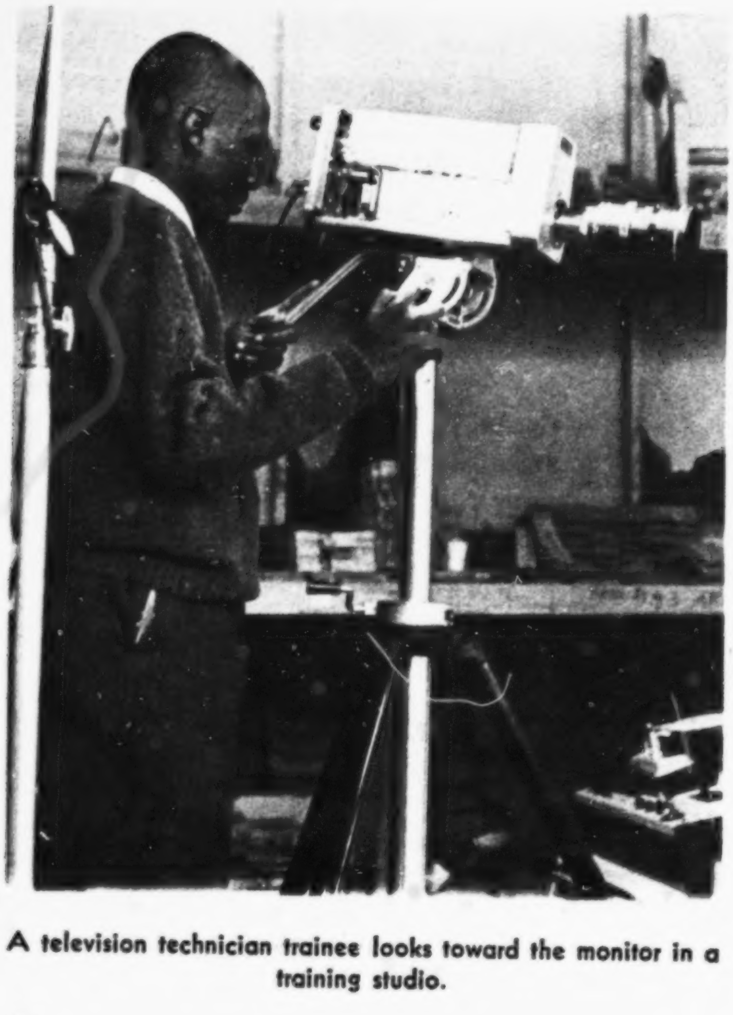
A variation of this is the absorption of the training provisions of the Area Redevelopment Act by the Manpower Development and Training Act.

Similar Acts serve different conditions of training need.—Both the Vocational Education Act and the Manpower Development and Training Act provide for training in a vast range of occupations for adults as well as youth; both can serve the unemployed; and both permit occupation-related basic education. The Vocational Education Act has strengthened the capacity of public schools to offer up-to-date vocational training integrated with general education.

The Vocational Education Act and the Manpower Development and Training Act complement rather than duplicate one another. The allowance payments permitted under the Manpower Act are a conspicuous difference between the two Acts. Practical conditions also make different operating demands. The Vocational Education Act serves primarily those who are in school or who will continue directly from high school to a technical institute. The youth served by Manpower programs have, for the most part, dropped out of school and cannot—or will not—go back. The Manpower program provides the flexibility required for concentrated skill training for the unemployed who cannot wait for school terms to begin. Also, Manpower training centers are facilities different from the area vocational schools.

Administrative selectivity permits mutual aid.—The Manpower program gives ad hoc support to specialized training programs. For example, it is separate from the vocational rehabilitation program, but it does give occupational training to some handicapped persons. And arrangements are being made to finance training to upgrade skills of Negro teachers of the deaf to ensure their employment.

Figure 10 shows the movements and combinations that are possible within the main body of Federal training legislation to combat unemployment, poverty, and other blocks to entry into the mainstream of economic life.



A television technician trainee looks toward the monitor in a training studio.

All of the Federal training legislation and its administrative structures are designed to combine flexibility with practical steps to match people in need with jobs.

The Problems In Making It Work

Performance has not equalled intention, but progress in coordination at the Federal level is improving. Problems of coordination become more complex at State and local levels.

One factor which causes some of the coordinating problems is that the different Federal departments have developed different lines of communication with local communities. The 2,000 local employment service offices have a different working relationship with the Department of Labor, than do local school boards with the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Different legislation has set up different routes of operation. For example, the Vocational Education Act provides grants to the States to be administered by the State vocational education agencies. The Manpower program customarily works through the State vocational agencies in arranging for training, but can act directly with other public and private agencies, and Manpower fund allotments are established for each State, but not granted directly to them.

As Federal administrators have had to develop some new acquaintances with each other across departmental lines, so Federal, State, and local officials are being brought into new working relationships.

Initiative, leadership, planning, direction—all these must be part of local programs to make them work. This means obtaining the cooperation of many agencies and institutions, public and private, which inevitably have differing views about needs and priorities.

Federal Coordinating Teams

On October 19, 1965, the President's Committee on Manpower created a task force charged with the responsibility of recommending steps to achieve improved coordination of Federal Manpower training programs at local levels. After 4 months of work, the task force submitted a unanimous report, which is being implemented.

The task force agreed on the need for better coordination, and for more detailed information on local problems. It noted that problems vary from one community to another, and that all agencies need to be alert to problems of intra-

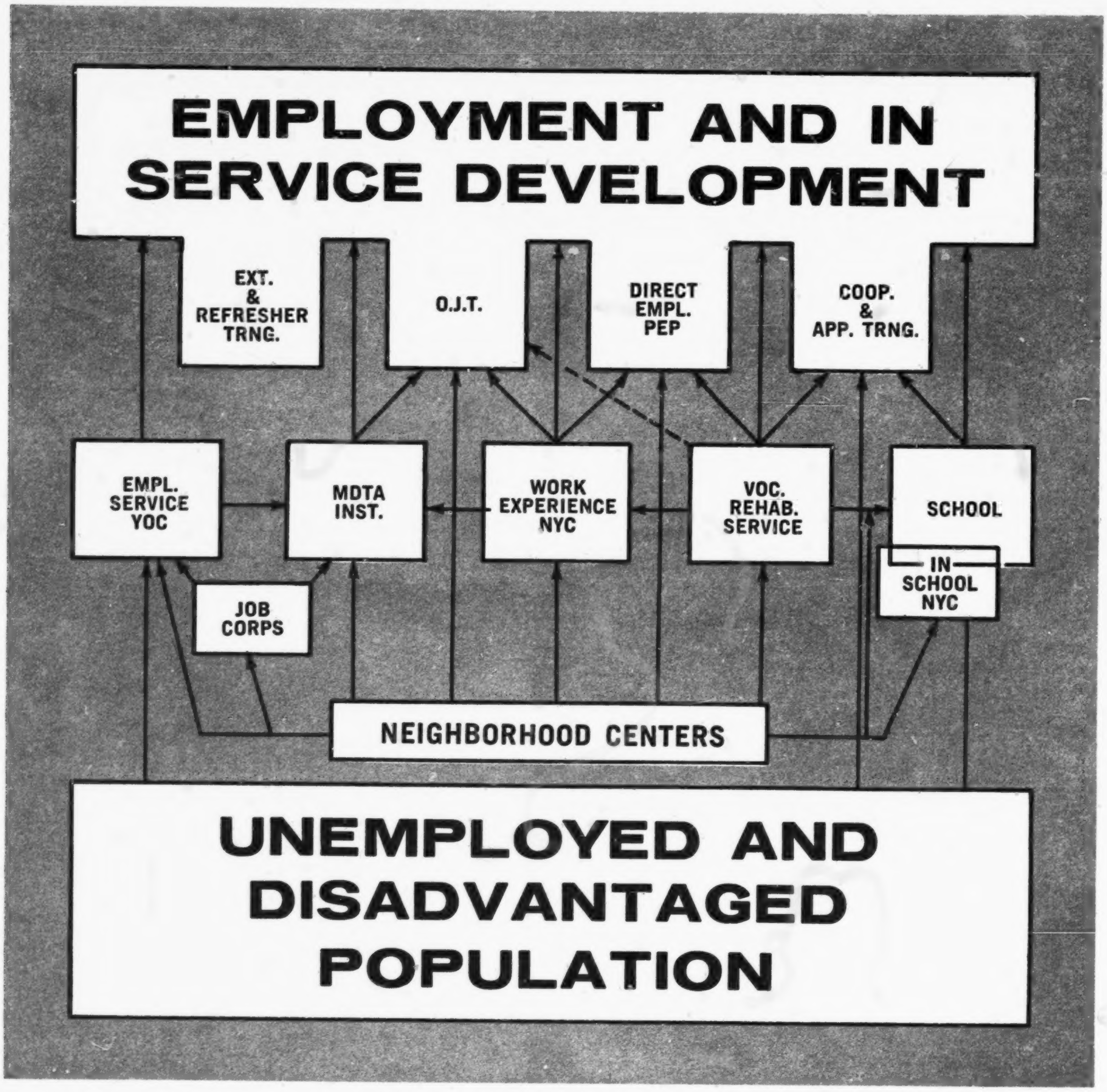

EMPLOYMENT AND IN SERVICE DEVELOPMENT
EXT. & REFRESHER TRNG.
O.J.T.
DIRECT EMPL. PEP
COOP. & APP. TRNG.
EMPL. SERVICE YOC
MDTA INST.
WORK EXPERIENCE NYC
VOC. REHAB. SERVICE
SCHOOL
IN SCHOOL NYC
JOB CORPS
NEIGHBORHOOD CENTERS
UNEMPLOYED AND DISADVANTAGED POPULATION

Figure 10.

U.S. Department of Labor.

as well as inter-agency communication. As the community action agencies become better established, they can contribute greatly to improved local coordination. But as an interim measure, it was recommended that inter-agency 3-man teams be appointed to review problems in 30 selected cities and be available to provide technical assistance in planning and operations.

Each Manpower coordination team is to be composed of one representative each from the Department of Labor, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and of the Office of Economic Opportunity. Each representative will be a part of the operating staff of his agency. Each team will have responsibility for at least one major city.

The teams will identify all training programs in a community, the training proposals pertinent to it, and all unmet training needs or gaps. They will encourage local community groups to marshall

all their resources to provide jobs for the unemployed and to do so in a manner that will make maximum use of existing facilities. The teams will call to the attention of the appropriate Federal agency any program problems within its own structure which may be impairing the program's success. Local agencies will be encouraged to make an intensive study and to report on the total community needs for training programs.

The teams will report to a subcommittee of the President's Committee on Manpower which will direct assignments, review reports, and keep the matter of coordination under continuous surveillance.

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DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH EDUCATION AND WELFARE
USA

Chapter X

Improving the Program: New Directions

Preamble

It is fair to state that the overall performance of the Manpower program has been satisfactory, and that it has succeeded in a rather low key manner. It has surpassed the original goal set for it by the Congress.

The cumulative placement rate through last year shows that 74 percent of the trainees are employed now and more than that have had jobs sometime since completing training—most of them training-related. Employment opportunities are increasing and more of the chronically unemployed persons are being reached. Because of the programs' search for the hard to reach and hard to teach, the placement rate is expected to be lower for 1966.

The average cost of training is reasonable—especially in view of increasing periods of training—as the section on cost efficiency shows.

Cost benefit performance is also good. The reduction in public assistance benefits and in unemployment compensation payments, the increase in capability to pay taxes, and other personal and social benefits which flow from these, have made occupational training under the Manpower Act a profitable capital investment.

Occupational training under the Manpower Act has been of tangible, definite service to minority groups in the area in which they want it most: Economic uplift and opportunity. But it must—and will—be better.

The holding power of the Manpower program is good. The dropout rate for 1965 may be as high as 33 percent* but the cumulative dropout rate is lower than that of public secondary schools in general, and is three-fifths the dropout rate in public vocational high schools. The payment of allowances helps the Manpower trainee just as the work-support provisions of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 may be expected to reduce the dropout rate in public vocational schools.

Various other contributions and innovations have been referred to in the foregoing chapters. Despite these accomplishments, further improvements must be made. This report has tried to be candid about problems and needs as they have arisen, and to point out the steps that are being planned or are underway to solve them.

Problems Requiring Continuous Attention

A broader enrollment of the perennially unemployed.—It has been noted that the Department of Labor is seeking changes in the structure and organization of both State and Federal employment offices to better reach those who despair of a job. As Secretary Wirtz described it, this is no time to stop "when we are on the 10-yard line" in the effort to liquidate the inequities suffered by the poor. Educators must move forward, too, in support of this—they must increase their capability, and tax their ingenuity in meeting the special problems of Americans who are disadvantaged.

A more comprehensive educational measurement of Manpower training.—The first step in adapting resources for maximum efficiency in the program and in giving support to new directions is a thorough assessment of the present program. The growing magnitude of this problem has been illustrated with respect to teachers, to basic education, to the diversity and comparative value of new methods and curricula, and to organizational structures. Federal and State officials cannot observe all of the data, much less keep it all in mind. Facts will have to be gathered in a comprehensive fashion, processed, and analyzed for easy access. The goal is to have a precise profile of conditions, so that informed theory can be better related to the problems.

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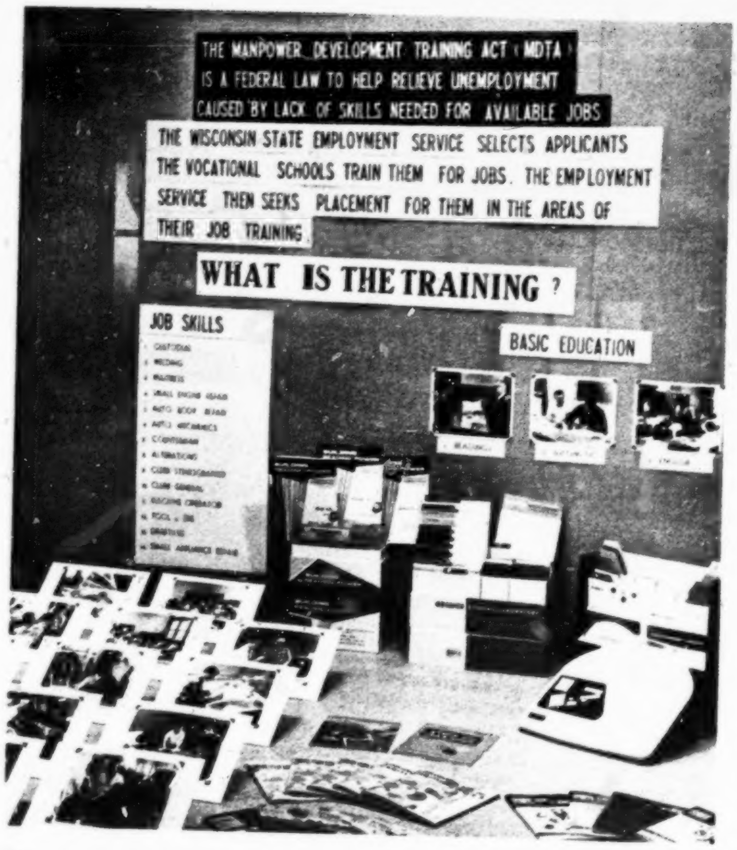
*Some people counted as dropouts are placed on jobs after leaving training.

An improved communications system at all levels to get better mileage out of creative developments.—The better measurement discussed above needs to be combined with the new and different concepts gained from research, experimental and demonstration programs, and from professional manpower staff. Then there must be information clearing houses at Federal and State levels to provide better project design, lower budgets, and higher performance standards.

Progress in giving status to Manpower teachers.—The dedication of those who are serving the program well should not be taken for granted. Manpower teachers who are not from the public vocational system are an invaluable resource for the teaching corps that system will soon need. State and local boards of education could consider Manpower experience in granting teacher certification.

The multiple occupational skill center should develop further.—This is particularly true in the large metropolitan areas. The centers provide the best means of accommodating large numbers of trainees, expanding their choices, and pacing them by their own abilities. They provide program continuity, and stability for the teaching staff. The multiple skill center adjusts quickly to labor market needs and industrial demands, and is of maximum use to disadvantaged youth and minority groups. In spite of the healthy growth of these projects, they still serve far too few persons in proportion to need.

Better inter-agency cooperation and coordination.—At the community levels prime initiative in assessing manpower needs and resources and in developing projects to serve them, lies with local people and institutions. Such groups and individuals need more technical help and service by State and Federal program administrators on how to make the maximum use of resources to fill gaps. For example, a course for persons with special needs under the Vocational Education Act may be coupled with a Manpower project for the disadvantaged. Program pairing is possible also with Office of Economic Opportunity programs. The mutual needs of individuals can be served and program costs can be shared.


THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT TRAINING ACT (MDTA)
IS A FEDERAL LAW TO HELP RELIEVE UNEMPLOYMENT
CAUSED BY LACK OF SKILLS NEEDED FOR AVAILABLE JOBS
THE WISCONSIN STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE SELECTS APPLICANTS
THE VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS TRAIN THEM FOR JOBS. THE EMPLOYMENT
SERVICE THEN SEEKS PLACEMENT FOR THEM IN THE AREAS OF
THEIR JOB TRAINING.
WHAT IS THE TRAINING ?
JOB SKILLS
BASIC EDUCATION

A window display in Wisconsin tells the Manpower story through effective use of pictures and training materials.

The concern of Members of Congress and the Federal administrators for better coordination of the Manpower program with other training and employment programs led to the adoption of teams to promote coordination of these programs in communities across the land.

Broader use of facilities and equipment.—The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare must continue to strengthen its efforts to ensure that excess and surplus equipment is made available to training projects serving disadvantaged youth and adults.

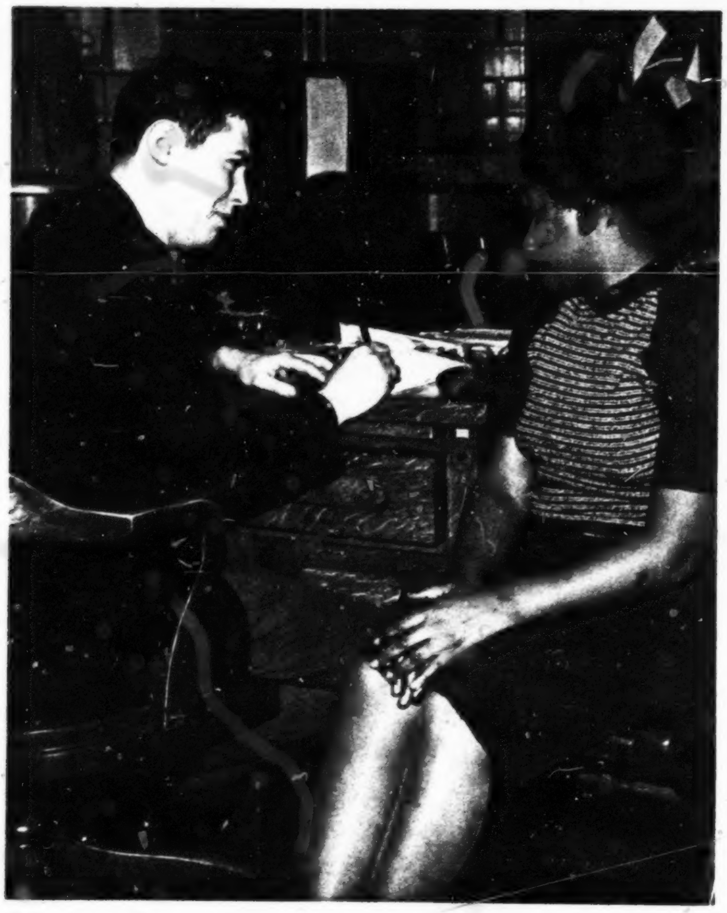
The Department can stimulate the use of community facilities, both public and private, for any phase of Manpower training from recruitment to job placement. A room in the city hall, courthouse, library, YMCA, settlement house, or other, can be used for interviewing recruits for training or for follow-up counseling, or for job placement.

More community facilities can be used for actual training, although this is conditioned by the type of training. In high motivational programs, the disadvantaged may receive basic education, orientation, and training in a number of different situations where community action agencies contribute to program coordination. An individual may receive basic education in a private community facility, job orientation in a community action center, skill development in an occupational training facility, and work experience with cooperative businesses. Combinations of these various components of training can be tailored to individual needs where there are large-scale operations. And larger projects are needed to keep unit costs reasonable.

The opportunity for disadvantaged persons to merit higher level job training must be improved.—In certain fields, such as health services, and for certain categories of training for inmates of correctional institutions, there is still too much skepticism, or fear, either that the disadvantaged cannot be made competent or that they are not the "right types."

It has been established that these individuals can be made as competent as anyone else of comparable aptitude and intrinsic ability. When, as the result of quality training, they meet reasonable performance criteria, they should not be stigmatized as "bottom of the barrel" people.

If those released from correctional institutions are to be offered practical opportunities for reform, beyond a moralistic preachment, they should have the opportunities of a second chance, to use skills in which they have been trained so that they can be constructive on their return to society.



Counselor discusses training and placement opportunities with new enrollee.

The program administrators emphasize this point in conferences, and in contacts with hiring institutions and various subprofessional associations. They will continue to press the effort.

Manpower research should be primarily applied research.—Research should develop out of problems met in training unskilled people to acquire the skills needed to obtain employment. It should seek practical solutions to those problems. A matter of priorities is involved, and not an opposition to investigating the more remote problems of motivation, learning theory, or personality analysis. Specific hypotheses for counseling, teaching, curriculum development, and job motivation should be drawn from the more basic investigations of the behavioral sciences, and tested in manpower training and education situations. This is being done in Manpower experimental and demonstration projects into which research designs of increasing rigor are being built. There must be continued emphasis made to develop research addressed to difficult practical problems and to encourage the development of researchers who can do this with creativity and imagination.

New Directions for Manpower Training

Manpower training exists as a tool of manpower policy. Training and education for occupational skill must not lose its anchor in the requirements of the labor market and of industry, and of the needs of individuals for gainful employment.

The assault on the hard-core pockets of unemployment, a marked trend of the program to date, will be intensified. That in itself is bringing about some new directions in training design. There is also the condition that jobs of higher skill are short of trained manpower to fill them. The program can serve both of these conditions at the same time. Some of the new directions which should be contemplated now are:

A new emphasis on training for job upgrading.—The Manpower Act permits training the underemployed as well as the unemployed. Underemployment means everything from having only a part-time job, to working below the level of one's present ability. In the last 3 years unemployment has been the principal concern of Manpower training. But we must face now the matter of giving considerably more emphasis to training and education to upgrade people in their present jobs.

There are two prime reasons for this. In the first place, those in the work force already employed have the best capabilities for supplying—when properly trained—many of the new skills in short supply. They already possess good industrial habits, some of the basic skills, and immediate availability to their employers. Training for job upgrading is one of the most efficient ways to fill skill shortages at each new higher skill level up through subprofessional technical categories.

In the second place, only by upgrading present workers to a much greater extent than we have, can we open up more positions at the entry unskilled and semi-skilled levels. Most of the long-term unemployed are such because of low levels of educational attainment. This is an important consideration and if any extensive basic education must be provided, the first step on the ladder must be a fairly low-skill entry job. But to open such jobs, those who already have them must be helped to move up. A domino theory must be made to operate in an upward direction.

Job upgrading is a way to renew again an upward mobility in occupational terms and to serve both sides of our present manpower coin—people seeking jobs, and jobs seeking people.

Students in a refrigeration class turn from blackboard to watch equipment demonstration.

In addition to job upgrading, we must support and encourage job redirection.—Some jobs become obsolete either through automation or because they are not required for other reasons. Retraining a worker in such a case may or may not upgrade his skill level and financial reward, although it should. It will, however, certainly redirect him occupationally. Where this is primarily a problem which affects his motivation, we have to meet it by better counseling and teaching.

Redirection, however, may have to be encouraged for its own sake, when other factors such as salary and working conditions are equal. The condition is already here of sharp competition for a tight manpower pool. The health services alone need a million more people in the next 10 years. Education will demand many new people. The whole range of support personnel in the sciences and technologies are not available in adequate numbers. Not only occupational counseling, but broad area training in which different occupations are sampled will have a place in opening up choices to individuals at all skill levels.

In any case, trends indicate that most workers will have three or more careers in a lifetime, and it will be necessary to help those persons to redirect their training several times.

The Manpower training program should be expanded.—Most Western European countries began their manpower training programs during the period of recovery following World War II. These programs became a permanent part of their development and train annually about 1 percent of their labor force. That is a higher level than the U.S. effort, but it is a direction which seems sound and should warrant consideration in this country.

The problem of training for emerging occupations.—The Manpower program trains individuals for jobs in which there is a reasonable expectation of employment. This tends to keep training close to current labor market needs. But we should be able to learn from research what some of the new occupations are going to be, to anticipate skill trends and demands, and to prepare better for them in advance.

Supportive health services.—Inasmuch as illness has been a substantial factor in causing dropouts from Manpower training, and health improvement is vital in helping the disadvantaged get the full benefit of training, it may be necessary to add provisions to the Manpower Act to ensure such services.

OFFICIAL VISA

GOOD FOR job training

JOURNEY TO OPPORTUNITY UP TO 104 WEEKS

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DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE USA

Chapter XI

Expanding the Choices

> *Among the works of man, which human life is rightly employed in perfecting and beautifying, the first in importance, is surely man himself. Supposing it were possible to get houses built, corn grown, battles fought, causes tried, and even churches erected and prayers said by machinery—by automatons in human form—it would be a considerable loss to exchange for these automatons even the men and women who at present inhabit the more civilized parts of the world, and who assuredly are but starved specimens of what nature can and will produce. Human nature is not a machine to be built after a model, and set to do exactly the works prescribed for it, but a tree, which requires to grow and develop itself on all sides, according to the tendency of the inward forces which make it a living thing.*
>
> John Stuart Mill
> *Essay on Liberty*, 1859.

In the midst of the first industrial revolution, John Stuart Mill spoke with prescience of the fears expressed by many, in this second industrial revolution of accelerated technology and automation, who wonder if machines are on the threshold of replacing men. The fears of others leap even beyond this. To them, the management of a technological society means a technocratic state with centralized planning and control. In both cases, they see man being limited in personal freedom and opportunity. They fear that security will be purchased at the price of a loss of choice in work, and individual confinement to being a small gear in a large social machine.

Nothing like this is going to happen unless we abandon our traditions and values, lose all common sense, and suffer a failure of nerve. But much more positively, we are already engaged in laying the foundations, and hammering together the supporting beams, of a Great Society which is designed for increasing the opportunities of our people and expanding their choices.

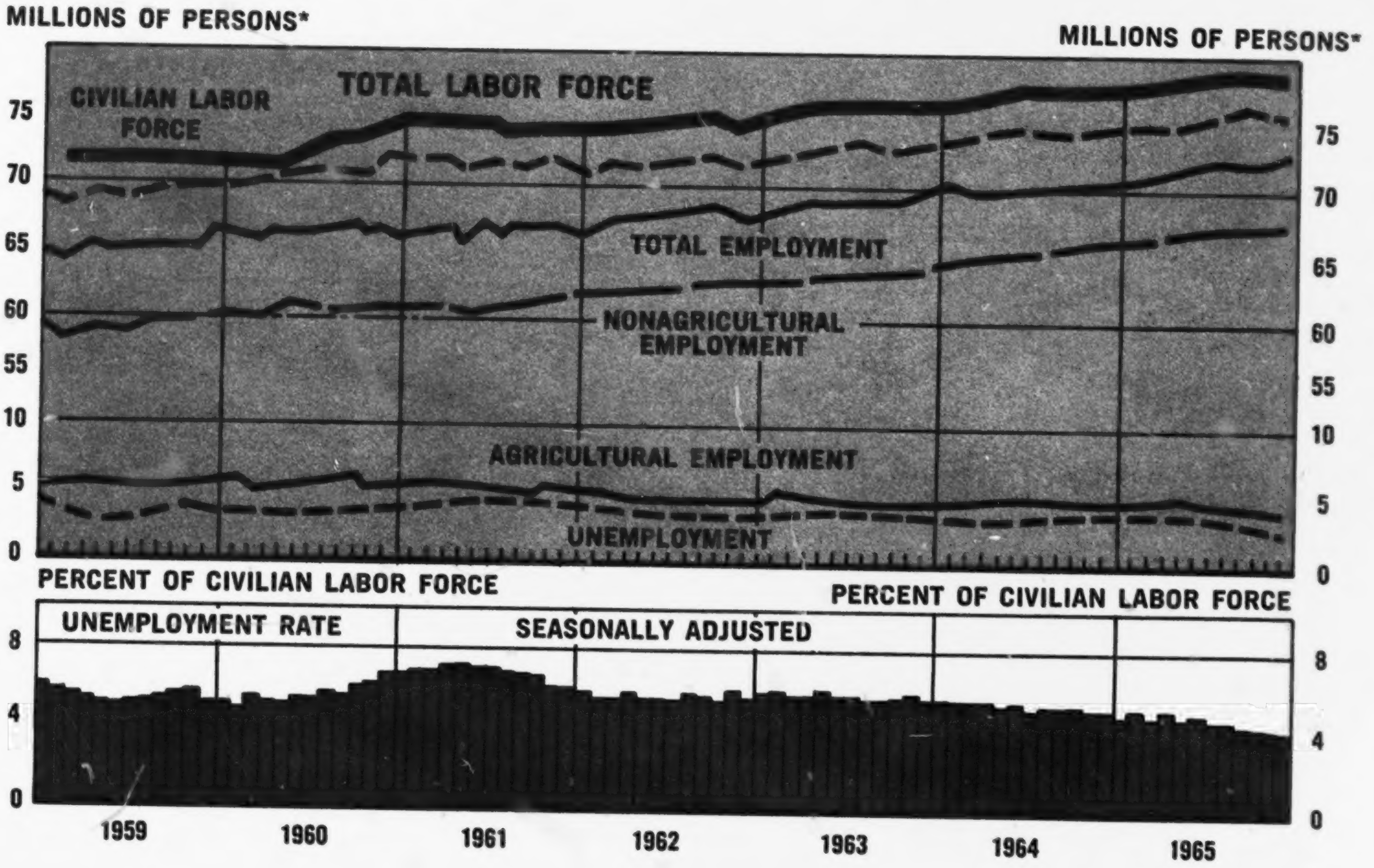
When we consider the next steps ahead, we know that above all it means making machines into the servants of men, not vice versa. Machines must free men for new work, more creative work, work demanding more from the undeveloped human potentials for intelligence, understanding, and imagination. We only know what we have done. We have scarcely imagined what we can do.

New Choices in the World of Work

The role and the pace of technology are changing the character of work, not eliminating it. When President Johnson announced a job development program in February 1965, with a goal of producing 10,000 new jobs per month, the requirement seemed steep. Nevertheless, the job development program was incorporated in the 1965 amendments to the Manpower Act, and by the end of 1965, the goal of the program had been met.

The 1965 amendments to the Manpower Act point to "those service and related needs which are not now being met because of lack of trained workers or other reasons affecting employment or opportunities for employment."

Attention was thus called to a whole new dimension of the service needs of our people, and to the basic shift in work orientation which this



*14 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER.
SOURCE: DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

COUNCIL OF ECONOMIC ADVISERS

Figure 11.—Status of the Labor Force.

will entail. It is a shift of great magnitude and of equally great opportunity.

In the early days of this Nation, and through most of the 19th century, the largest industry by far in America was agriculture. For many years now, agriculture has experienced both steadily increasing productivity, and a steadily decreasing work force. Today, a very small percentage of our labor force can supply us with all the food and fiber we need, and help relieve food crises in other parts of the world as well.

Until recently, the manufacturing and construction industries absorbed many workers released from the farms. In building the strongest industrial nation on earth America needed not only native workers, but she welcomed millions from many lands to help lay rails across the continent, mine the coal and ore, draw the steel from the open hearths, and serve in every craft and form of work.

Technology is increasingly taking the drudgery out of work, and in manufacturing the number of workers appears to be levelling off, even though productivity has climbed. It is not clear yet whether the level of the manufacturing work force will stabilize. What is certain to happen, however, is that the nature of work within industry will change. It will be less demanding of brawn, but more challenging of brain.

A brilliant achievement in tilling the soil and an equally spectacular capacity to produce goods have brought wealth and resources whereby most Americans enjoy a good to high standard of living. The Nation has the means to bring the rest of its citizens out of poverty.

The development of service occupations will create many new jobs. These jobs, as President Johnson has insisted, must pay good wages and have good working conditions. Moreover, the nature of these new occupations offers new opportunities for self-fulfillment and satisfaction, making more of work than just an economic activity.

We are now in a position, as we have never been before, to give attention to what one works for when he does not work for bread alone.

The service occupations now include hundreds of categories. Although they will succumb less easily to automation, they have grown in skill requirements. Technology is changing so rapidly that we do not even have names yet for some new

President Lyndon Johnson hands Senator George Murphy a pen he used to sign the 1965 amendments to the Manpower Act. Presidential pens were also given to (left to right) Representative Sam Gibbons, Representative Roman Pucinski, Senator Jennings Randolph (partially hidden), Representative Elmer Holland, Representative Dominic Daniels, Representative James O'Hara, Senator Joseph Clark, Senator Winston Prouty, and Secretary of Labor Willard Wirtz.

occupations. Professions have grown so complex that they have moved, through specialization, to the spawning of new professional aides with new occupational careers. This is true in education, in the health services, in the whole spectrum of technical and scientific fields.

In a society growing larger and more complex, the capabilities of all levels of government for service must also grow. In all parts of the Nation, people are increasingly demanding for themselves an equivalent of the best they have heard about elsewhere in health, education, and other services.

For the last two decades, in every important indicator of growth—number of personnel, size of budget, expenditures, bonded indebtedness—the rate in State and local governments has exceeded the Federal Government. Positions in State and local government service have become prime job opportunities in America.

In May 1964, at the University of Michigan, President Johnson announced and developed his concept of creative federalism. The President said, "The solution to these problems does not rest on a massive program in Washington, nor can it rely solely on the strained resources of local authority. They require us to create new concepts of cooperation, a creative federalism, between the national Capital and the leaders of local communities." The Federal-State-local elements have to work even more closely. There is no most—or least—important leg on a three-legged stool.

The President also outlined the need to widen the range of choices for people: "The great society is a place where every child can find knowledge to enrich his mind and to enlarge his talents—our society will not be great until every young mind is set free to scan the farthest reaches of thought and imagination."

The role of the Federal Government in providing aid to education and training is to stimulate not stultify, to support not supplant, to catalyze not control. That is the meaning of the creative federalism which challenges Americans with the expanding choices of cooperation and coordination.

If we exploit the choices, we can have the expectations of Mill that "assuredly [we] are but starved specimens of what nature can and will produce."

Our imperative was expressed by a young manpower trainee in New Orleans: "We must succeed, so that others will have the same opportunity we have."

Statistical Appendix

Summary data: Approvals, enrollment

Table No.

A–1 MDTA trainees authorized by State, calendar year 1965 and 1964.
A–2 Negro enrollment in MDTA institutional courses, August 1962–November 15, 1965.
A–3 Trainees enrolled in MDTA institutional training projects by State, August 1962–November 1965, and calendar years 1965 and 1964.
A–4 Percentage distribution of trainees enrolled in MDTA institutional projects, August 1962–November 15, 1965.

Characteristics of trainees enrolled in institutional projects

B–1 By calendar year project started, 1965–1963.
B–2 By sex, 1965 and 1964.
B–3 By age, 1965 and 1964.
B–4 By year of school completed, 1965 and 1964.
B–5 By race, 1965 and 1964.
B–6 Selected characteristics by State.

Occupation of training

C–1 Enrollment by occupational group by calendar years 1965–1962.
C–2 Age of trainee by occupational group for 1965 and 1964.
C–3 Educational attainment of trainee by occupational group for 1965 and 1964.
C–4 Race of traineee by occupational group for 1965 and 1964.
C–5 Enrolled in occupational group by State, 1965.

Basic education

D–1 Characteristics of trainees enrolled, 1965.
D–2 Selected characteristics of trainees enrolled by State, 1965.
D–3 Percent of population 25 years old or over completing less than 8 years of school, 1960 census of population.

Labor force status of persons completing institutional training courses during 1964 and 1963.

E–1 Completions and labor force status by year of completion and sex.
E–2 Labor force status by year of completion and race.
E–3 Rate of employment by selected trainee characteristics for graduates in the labor force by sex and race.
E–4 Rate of employment by occupation of training for graduates in the labor force by sex and race.
E–5 Post training earnings and training occupation of employed graduates by sex and race.
E–6 Persons leaving the labor force after completion of training.
E–7 Occupation of training and reasons given for leaving the labor force.
E–8 Training occupation of graduates by State (cumulative through August 1965).

Urban vs. Rural county of residence

F–1 Characteristics by type of county of residence.
F–2 Year of school completed by age of trainee by type of county of residence.

Table A-1.—MDTA Trainees Authorized by State, Calendar Year 1965 and 1964

State	Trainees					
	1965			1964		
	Total	Institutional training [3]	On-the-job [1]	Total	Institutional training	On-the-job [2]
Total	221,011	152,014	68,997	193,365	167,205	26,160
Alabama	2,604	2,294	310	4,730	4,670	60
Alaska	509	505	4	1,528	1,483	45
Arizona	2,220	1,710	510	1,766	1,444	322
Arkansas	1,642	1,142	500	989	863	126
California	25,017	16,222	8,795	20,112	17,447	2,665
Colorado	1,783	1,260	523	2,807	2,387	420
Connecticut	6,645	5,127	1,518	3,771	3,189	582
Delaware	733	376	357	452	452	0
District of Columbia	2,747	1,225	1,522	2,565	1,536	1,029
Florida	5,380	3,846	1,534	4,945	4,768	177
Georgia	4,159	1,928	2,231	4,141	3,991	150
Guam	60	60	0	85	85	0
Hawaii	354	269	85	438	438	0
Idaho	364	354	10	325	325	0
Illinois	18,030	11,156	6,874	12,402	10,530	1,872
Indiana	2,485	1,796	689	4,050	3,624	426
Iowa	2,193	1,796	397	1,609	1,438	171
Kansas	1,715	1,284	431	1,598	1,541	57
Kentucky	3,045	2,112	933	3,161	2,921	240
Louisiana	2,860	1,360	1,500	2,224	905	1,319
Maine	2,037	1,539	498	2,805	2,780	25
Maryland	3,234	1,470	1,764	2,430	2,086	344
Massachusetts	8,239	6,397	1,842	8,040	7,601	439
Michigan	10,774	7,041	3,733	8,516	7,947	569
Minnesota	2,664	2,000	664	5,634	5,233	401
Mississippi	1,447	951	496	3,271	2,095	1,176
Missouri	5,276	4,189	1,087	4,286	4,211	75
Montana	844	677	167	632	615	17
Nebraska	1,266	949	317	2,375	2,375	0
Nevada	640	481	159	999	999	0
New Hampshire	1,616	886	730	1,135	1,001	134
New Jersey	9,400	6,767	2,633	3,174	2,240	934
New Mexico	515	478	37	677	657	20
New York	18,779	13,238	5,541	18,075	14,228	3,847
North Carolina	3,539	1,205	2,334	4,263	2,822	1,441
North Dakota	961	699	262	741	607	134
Ohio	10,932	9,070	1,862	8,323	7,605	718
Oklahoma	1,030	712	318	4,133	4,058	75
Oregon	1,953	1,433	520	3,212	3,116	96
Pennsylvania	9,051	6,499	2,552	7,476	6,682	794
Puerto Riço	4,137	1,827	2,310	6,152	3,980	2,172
Rhode Island	924	729	195	611	611	0
South Carolina	2,533	1,821	712	1,132	1,080	52
South Dakota	1,097	467	630	550	346	204
Tennessee	5,641	3,352	2,289	3,148	2,795	353
Texas	8,024	5,963	2,061	4,723	3,483	1,240
Utah	1,209	693	516	616	516	100
Vermont	814	696	118	645	575	70
Virginia	3,269	2,435	834	3,054	2,881	173
Virgin Islands	214	214	0	128	128	0
Washington	6,164	5,574	590	4,362	3,857	505
West Virginia	1,822	1,550	272	547	487	60
Wisconsin	5,957	3,790	2,167	3,607	3,294	313
Wyoming	464	400	64	195	177	18

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[1] Includes 3,607 trainees in 41 experimental and demonstration projects and 2,222 trainees in 39 projects under the CAUSE program.

[2] Includes 4,773 trainees in 74 experimental and demonstration projects and 2,080 trainees in 77 projects under the CAUSE program.

[3] Excludes special projects funded under section 241 of the MDTA relating to redevelopment areas.

Table A-2.—Negro Enrollment in MDTA Institutional Courses Cumulative to December 1965

Rank in number of trainees	Negro population[1]			Negro MDTA trainees	
	Rank in Negro population	Number	Percent of total population[1]	Number	Percent of total enrollment
Total	--------	18,871,831	10.5	72,636	26.5
1. Illinois	6	1,037,470	10.3	10,201	59.3
2. New York	1	1,417,511	8.4	6,771	38.6
3. Michigan	15	717,581	9.2	5,646	42.9
4. Pennsylvania	11	852,750	7.5	5,238	32.1
5. California	9	883,861	5.6	4,689	22.0
6. Ohio	14	786,097	8.1	3,636	30.0
7. South Carolina	12	829,291	34.8	3,464	56.7
8. Missouri	20	390,853	9.0	2,836	35.7
9. District of Columbia	19	411,737	53.9	2,471	91.8
10. Tennessee	16	586,876	16.5	2,124	33.6
11. Indiana	22	269,275	5.8	1,963	32.2
12. Georgia	3	1,122,596	28.5	1,911	
13. Florida	10	880,186	17.8	1,767	46.1
14. Texas	2	1,187,125	12.4	1,742	30.7
15. Connecticut	26	107,449	4.2	1,649	22.6
16. Alabama	7	980,271	30.0	1,580	24.7
17. Virginia	13	816,258	20.6	1,477	27.9
18. New Jersey	18	514,875	8.5	1,470	35.1
					32.2
19. Massachusetts	25	111,842	2.2	1,446	16.0
20. Maryland	17	518,410	16.7	1,290	58.0
21. Kentucky	23	215,949	7.1	1,202	13.1
22. Wisconsin	29	74,546	1.9	1,105	25.8
23. North Carolina	4	1,116,021	24.5	777	28.9
24. Oklahoma	24	153,084	6.6	600	15.4
25. Arkansas	21	388,787	21.8	560	25.8
26. Washington	31	48,738	1.7	537	8.1
27. Puerto Rico	52	--------	--------	514	10.1
28. Mississippi	8	915,743	42.0	499	34.6
29. Louisiana	5	1,039,207	31.9	490	40.3
30. Kansas	27	91,445	4.2	477	19.5
31. Delaware	30	60,688	13.6	413	67.7
32. West Virginia	28	89,378	4.8	265	7.3
33. Arizona	32	43,403	3.3	261	12.9
34. Colorado	33	39,992	2.3	255	8.4
35. Nevada	40	13,484	4.7	249	15.8
36. Nebraska	34	29,262	2.1	204	11.9
37. Minnesota	36	22,263	.7	181	4.7
38. Oregon	38	18,133	1.0	155	4.6
39. Rhode Island	37	18,332	2.1	116	9.7
40. Iowa	35	25,354	.9	111	4.9
41. Alaska	41	6,771	3.0	84	6.6
42. New Mexico	39	17,063	1.8	74	5.5
43. Virgin Islands	53	--------	--------	40	90.9
44. New Hampshire	45	1,903	.3	35	1.9
45. Utah	42	4,148	.5	23	1.8
46. Wyoming	44	2,183	.7	12	2.6
47. Maine	43	3,318	.3	10	.3
48. Idaho	46	1,502	.2	5	.8
49. Montana	47	1,467	.2	4	.4
50. Vermont	51	519	.1	4	.4
51. South Dakota	48	1,114	.2	2	.6
52. Hawaii	49	943	.1	1	.2
53. North Dakota	50	777	.1	0	--------
54. Guam	54	--------	--------	0	--------

[1] 1960 census.

Table A-3.—Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Training Projects by State August 1962–November 1965, and Calendar Years 1965 and 1964

State	August 1962–November 1965	Calendar year	
		1965[1]	1964
Total	273,837	102,989	100,766
Alabama	6,149	1,976	3,070
Alaska	1,399	523	622
Arizona	2,215	587	1,020
Arkansas	2,303	884	586
California	23,327	9,605	7,320
Colorado	3,267	1,595	979
Connecticut	7,122	2,715	1,987
Delaware	677	177	425
District of Columbia	2,972	1,151	1,132
Florida	6,352	2,573	2,725
Georgia	4,446	2,331	1,360
Guam	106	99	- -
Hawaii	661	208	175
Idaho	692	276	242
Illinois	18,902	6,642	6,496
Indiana	6,526	2,209	3,086
Iowa	2,390	757	914
Kansas	2,640	1,285	736
Kentucky	9,768	2,463	5,550
Louisiana	1,323	1,260	66
Maine	3,195	1,029	1,166
Maryland	2,383	1,237	696
Massachusetts	9,905	4,065	3,309
Michigan	14,087	6,020	5,274
Minnesota	4,089	2,560	641
Mississippi	1,585	971	540
Missouri	8,494	2,773	3,051
Montana	1,016	309	323
Nebraska	1,850	218	624
Nevada	1,718	634	611
New Hampshire	2,004	654	682
New Jersey	4,970	1,049	1,833
New Mexico	1,454	452	519
New York	18,948	6,048	8,104
North Carolina	2,884	1,173	837
North Dakota	931	166	317
Ohio	12,866	5,662	4,902
Oklahoma	4,205	1,153	1,629
Oregon	3,545	993	1,327
Pennsylvania	17,348	6,479	5,777
Puerto Rico	6,928	2,434	2,486
Rhode Island	1,268	505	279
South Carolina	6,559	2,184	3,660
South Dakota	381	82	188
Tennessee	6,657	2,591	2,456
Texas	8,204	2,636	3,041
Utah	1,358	391	505
Vermont	1,101	445	449
Virgin Islands	77	- -	- -
Virginia	4,471	1,488	1,989
Washington	7,158	3,763	1,310
West Virginia	3,776	1,418	1,782
Wisconsin	4,683	1,893	1,762
Wyoming	502	198	206

[1] 1965 enrollment in institutional projects estimated to be over 125,000. Data tabulated are based on reports processed through Nov. 15, 1965.

Table A-4.—Percentage Distribution of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects

[August 1962-November 15, 1965]

State	Total	Male	Female	White	Negro	Other nonwhite	Race not obtained	Percent Negro population 1960
Total: Number	273,837	165,913	107,924	175,085	72,636	5,055	21,061	18,871,831
Percent	100.0	60.6	39.4	63.9	26.5	1.8	7.7	10.5
Alabama	6,149	48.7	51.3	72.0	27.9	.1	490	30.0
Alaska	1,399	68.0	32.0	58.3	6.6	35.2	117	3.0
Arizona	2,215	50.2	49.8	80.2	12.9	6.9	190	3.3
Arkansas	2,303	54.0	46.0	74.1	25.8	.1	130	21.8
California	23,327	31.2	68.8	75.0	22.0	3.0	1,991	5.6
Colorado	3,267	55.8	44.2	87.3	8.4	4.3	240	2.3
Connecticut	7,122	73.4	26.6	74.4	24.7	.9	436	4.2
Delaware	677	55.2	44.8	31.8	67.7	.5	67	13.6
District of Columbia	2,972	51.7	48.3	8.1	91.2	.7	264	53.9
Florida	6,352	53.8	46.2	69.0	30.7	.3	589	17.8
Georgia	4,446	50.1	49.9	53.8	46.1	.1	302	28.5
Guam	106	46.2	53.8	1.7	--	98.3	48	--
Hawaii	661	24.1	75.9	19.7	.2	80.2	46	.8
Idaho	692	47.0	53.0	96.6	.8	2.6	47	.2
Illinois	18,902	55.8	44.2	39.9	59.3	.8	1,700	10.3
Indiana	6,526	71.1	28.9	67.3	32.2	.5	435	5.8
Iowa	2,390	73.7	26.3	94.5	4.9	.6	123	.9
Kansas	2,640	57.3	42.7	77.8	19.5	2.7	194	4.2
Kentucky	9,768	58.9	41.1	86.9	13.1	--	616	7.1
Louisiana	1,323	63.9	36.1	59.6	40.3	.1	108	31.9
Maine	3,195	53.4	46.6	99.5	.3	.1	243	.3
Maryland	2,383	64.1	35.9	41.2	58.0	.8	159	16.7
Massachusetts	9,905	75.9	24.1	83.1	16.0	.9	862	2.2
Michigan	14,087	62.4	37.6	56.0	42.9	1.0	941	9.2
Minnesota	4,089	62.3	37.7	92.4	4.7	2.9	259	.7
Mississippi	1,585	91.5	8.5	65.1	34.6	.3	142	42.0
Missouri	8,494	56.2	43.8	63.7	35.7	.6	549	9.0
Montana	1,016	70.8	29.2	95.9	.4	3.7	71	.2
Nebraska	1,850	59.5	40.5	85.9	11.9	2.2	136	2.1
Nevada	1,718	43.7	56.3	78.2	15.8	6.0	142	4.7
New Hampshire	2,004	52.9	47.1	98.1	1.9	.1	125	.3
New Jersey	4,970	63.8	36.2	67.2	32.2	.6	405	8.5
New Mexico	1,454	46.8	53.2	84.6	5.5	9.9	114	1.8
New York	18,948	52.0	48.0	59.7	38.6	1.7	1,416	8.4
North Carolina	2,884	67.6	32.4	69.5	28.9	1.6	194	24.5
North Dakota	931	61.0	39.0	96.8	--	3.2	84	.1
Ohio	12,866	62.6	37.4	69.7	30.0	.3	743	8.1
Oklahoma	4,205	59.4	40.6	77.2	15.4	7.4	298	6.6
Oregon	3,545	51.6	48.4	93.0	4.6	2.4	201	1.0
Pennsylvania	17,348	78.8	21.2	67.6	32.1	.3	1,054	7.5
Puerto Rico	6,928	85.8	14.2	79.1	10.1	10.9	1,821	--
Rhode Island	1,268	80.0	20.0	89.2	9.7	1.1	74	2.1
South Carolina	6,559	57.5	42.5	43.2	56.7	.1	450	34.8
South Dakota	381	82.2	17.8	89.4	.6	10.1	24	.2
Tennessee	6,657	74.2	25.8	66.4	33.6	--	338	16.5
Texas	8,204	66.0	34.0	75.6	22.6	1.9	483	12.4
Utah	1,358	63.9	36.1	93.7	1.8	4.5	112	.5
Vermont	1,101	76.8	23.2	99.5	.4	.1	85	.1
Virgin Islands	77	20.8	79.2	6.8	90.9	2.3	33	--
Virginia	4,471	60.9	39.1	64.9	35.1	--	261	20.6
Washington	7,158	78.7	21.3	88.1	8.1	3.9	514	1.7
West Virginia	3,776	67.9	32.1	92.7	7.3	--	152	4.8
Wisconsin	4,683	77.5	22.5	71.3	25.8	2.9	407	1.9
Wyoming	502	43.2	56.8	94.2	2.6	3.2	36	.7

NOTE.—Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table B-1.—Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects by Calendar Year Project Started

Characteristics	1965			1964		1963	
	Number	Percent					
Total number	102,989	100.0		100,766		54,064	
Percent							
Sex:							
Male	61,776	60.0		60.0		60.0	
Female	41,213	40.0		40.0		40.0	
Race:							
White	62,727	66.4		69.6		73.4	
Nonwhite	31,765	33.7		30.4		26.7	
Not obtained	8,497	(8,497)		(7,465)		(3,203)	
Family Status:							
Head of family or household	52,443	51.4		53.1		56.4	
Other	49,629	48.6		46.9		43.6	
Not reported	917	(917)		(1,025)		(165)	
Age:							
Under 19 years	18,927	18.4		15.3		8.5	
19 to 21 years	24,301	23.6		23.8		21.9	
22 to 34 years	34,372	33.4		34.0		40.4	
35 to 44 years	15,099	14.7		16.4		18.9	
45 years and over	10,290	10.0		10.6		10.3	
Highest grade completed:							
Less than 8th grade	7,248	7.1		7.6		3.2	
8th grade	10,071	9.9		9.4		7.0	
9th to 11th grade	34,593	33.9		32.9		30.9	
12th grade	43,992	43.1		43.9		49.8	
More than 12th grade	6,058	5.9		6.2		9.1	
Not reported	1,027	(1,027)		(959)		(73)	
Years of gainful employment:							
Under 3 years	43,348	42.8		38.1		27.8	
3 to 9 years	35,367	34.9		36.6		44.2	
10 years or more	22,661	22.4		25.2		28.0	
Not reported	1,613	(1,613)		(1,309)		(186)	
Employment status prior to enrollment			100.0		100.0		100.0
Unemployed	86,454	100.0	86.1	100.0	89.5	100.0	90.9
Under 5 weeks	28,242	32.7	28.1	31.5	28.2	27.4	24.9
5 to 14 weeks	20,186	23.3	20.1	23.1	20.7	24.7	22.5
15 to 26 weeks	11,416	13.2	11.4	12.8	11.4	15.2	13.8
27 to 52 weeks	9,552	11.0	9.5	11.0	9.8	12.5	11.3
Over 52 weeks	17,058	19.7	17.0	21.6	19.4	20.2	18.4
Family farm worker	1,845		1.8		2.3		1.1
Reentrant to labor force	3,612		3.6		.7		- -
Underemployed	8,453		8.4		7.5		8.0
Not reported	2,625		(2,625)		(2,089)		(737)

NOTE.—"Not reported" excluded from percentages. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table B-2.—Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects Started During Calendar Years 1965 and 1964 by Sex

Characteristics	1965			1964		
	Total number	Percent		Total number	Percent	
		Male	Female		Male	Female
Total	102.989	60.0	40.0	100,766	60.0	40.0
Race:						
White	62,727	71.1	59.2	64,917	73.0	64.4
Negro	29,820	26.6	39.1	26,602	24.9	34.0
Other nonwhite	1,945	2.3	1.6	1,782	2.1	1.6
Not obtained	8,497	(4,848)	(3,649)	7,465	(4,234)	(3,231)
Family status:						
Head of family or household	52,443	58.3	41.0	53,004	63.4	37.8
Other	49,629	41.7	59.0	46,737	36.6	62.2
Not reported	917	(524)	(393)	1,025	(578)	(447)
Wage earner status:						
Primary	58,736	64.9	46.9	57,104	68.2	42.6
Other	43,003	35.1	53.1	41,406	31.8	57.4
Not reported	1,250	(651)	(599)	2,256	(1,293)	(963)
Age:						
Under 19 years	18,927	18.7	17.9	15,371	14.9	15.8
19 to 21 years	24,301	24.3	22.6	23,933	24.9	22.0
22 to 34 years	34,372	35.2	30.7	34,217	35.7	31.3
35 to 44 years	15,099	12.8	17.4	16,568	14.6	19.2
45 years and over	10,290	9.0	11.5	10,677	9.9	11.7
Highest grade completed:						
Less than 8th grade	7,248	9.7	3.2	7,594	10.4	3.4
8th grade	10,071	12.6	5.8	9,374	12.4	4.9
9th to 11th grade	34,593	36.1	30.6	32,826	36.3	27.8
12th grade	43,992	36.9	52.5	43,780	35.8	55.9
More than 12th grade	6,058	4.6	7.9	6,233	5.1	8.0
Not reported	1,027	(622)	(405)	959	(577)	(382)
Employment status prior to enrollment:						
Unemployed	86,454	87.3	84.3	88,336	88.7	90.7
Under 5 weeks	28,242	32.1	22.2	27,830	31.4	23.3
5 to 14 weeks	20,186	22.7	16.2	20,432	23.5	16.6
15 to 26 weeks	11,416	12.0	10.4	11,276	11.8	10.8
27 to 52 weeks	9,552	8.9	10.4	9,701	9.4	10.5
Over 52 weeks	17,058	11.6	25.1	19,097	12.6	29.5
Family farmworker	1,845	2.9	.2	2,285	3.6	.4
Reentrant to labor force	3,612	1.1	7.3	649	.2	1.4
Underemployed	8,453	8.5	8.3	7,407	7.4	7.6
Not reported	2,625	(1,625)	(1,000)	2,089	(1,203)	(886)
Years of gainful employment:						
Under 3 years	43,348	36.4	52.3	37,932	31.7	47.9
3 to 9 years	35,367	35.6	33.9	36,424	36.8	36.3
10 years or more	22,661	28.1	13.8	25,101	31.5	15.7
Not reported	1,613	(975)	(638)	1,309	(723)	(586)
Public assistance status:						
Yes	11,296	9.2	14.1	7,071	9.8	3.1
No	89,749	90.8	85.9	92,724	90.2	96.9
Not reported	1,944	(1,173)	(771)	971	(551)	(420)

NOTE. "Not reported" excluded from percentages. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table B-3.—Part A, Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects by Age

[Calendar year 1965]

Characteristics	Total	Age			
		Under 19	19-21	22-44	45 and over
Total:					
Number reporting	102,989	18,927	24,301	49,471	10,290
Percent reporting	100.0	18.4	23.6	48.0	10.0
Percent					
Sex:					
Male	60.0	61.0	61.7	59.9	54.1
Female	40.0	39.0	38.3	40.1	45.9
Race:					
White	66.4	69.5	61.4	65.0	79.4
Nonwhite	33.7	30.5	38.5	35.0	20.6
Not obtained	(8,497)	(2,430)	(1,853)	(3,394)	(820)
Family status:					
Head of family or household	51.4	9.5	31.1	73.2	71.0
Other	48.6	90.5	68.9	26.8	29.0
Not reported	(917)	(181)	(315)	(355)	(66)
Wage earner status:					
Primary	57.7	15.4	39.3	78.5	79.1
Other	42.3	84.6	60.7	21.5	20.9
Not reported	(1,250)	(219)	(370)	(550)	(111)
Highest grade completed:					
Less than 8th grade	7.1	6.3	3.7	6.8	17.9
8th grade	9.9	12.2	7.2	9.2	15.2
9th to 11th grade	33.9	37.2	37.3	33.0	24.5
12th grade	43.1	43.7	47.3	43.2	32.2
More than 12th grade	5.9	.6	4.5	7.8	10.2
Not reported	(1,027)	(191)	(353)	(393)	(90)
Employment status prior to enrollment:					
Unemployed	86.1	87.2	88.3	85.7	81.9
Under 5 weeks	28.1	30.5	31.9	27.4	19.1
5 to 14 weeks	20.1	18.7	22.2	20.5	16.2
15 to 26 weeks	11.4	9.1	11.5	12.2	11.3
27 to 52 weeks	9.5	8.9	9.0	9.6	11.2
Over 52 weeks	17.0	20.0	13.7	16.0	24.1
Family farmworker	1.8	.7	.9	1.9	5.8
Reentrant to labor force	3.6	4.5	2.0	3.6	5.8
Underemployed	8.4	7.5	8.8	9.0	6.4
Not reported	(2,625)	(658)	(820)	(986)	(161)
Years of gainful employment:					
Under 3 years	42.8	92.9	73.9	16.3	6.0
3 to 9 years	34.9	7.0	25.7	52.6	22.0
10 years or more	22.4	.1	.3	31.1	72.0
Not reported	(1,613)	(410)	(548)	(556)	(99)
Public assistance status:					
Yes	11.2	5.7	6.8	15.3	11.7
No	88.8	94.3	93.2	84.7	88.3
Not reported	(1,944)	(395)	(542)	(842)	(165)

NOTE. "Not reported" excluded from percentages. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table B-3.—Part B, Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects by Age

[Calendar year 1964]

Characteristics	Total	Age			
		Under 19	19-21	22-44	45 and over
Total:					
Number reporting	100,766	15,371	23,933	50,785	10,677
Percent reporting	100.0	15.3	23.8	50.4	10.6
Percent					
Sex:					
Male	60.0	58.6	62.9	60.0	55.8
Female	40.0	41.4	37.1	40.0	44.2
Race:					
White	69.6	70.5	64.2	68.9	83.5
Nonwhite	30.4	29.5	35.8	31.1	16.6
Not obtained	(7,465)	(1,469)	(1,750)	(3,436)	(810)
Family status:					
Head of family or household	53.1	9.4	30.1	73.2	71.9
Other	46.9	90.6	69.9	26.8	28.1
Not reported	(1,025)	(169)	(289)	(469)	(98)
Wage earner status:					
Primary	58.0	15.1	36.9	76.7	78.1
Other	42.0	84.9	63.1	23.3	21.9
Not reported	(2,256)	(264)	(532)	(1,209)	(251)
Highest grade completed:					
Less than 8th grade	7.6	6.6	3.7	7.2	19.8
8th grade	9.4	11.3	6.6	9.0	14.6
9th to 11th grade	32.9	36.3	36.6	32.0	24.2
12th grade	43.9	45.2	48.1	43.9	32.2
More than 12th grade	6.2	.6	5.0	7.9	9.3
Not reported	(959)	(156)	(261)	(452)	(90)
Employment status prior to enrollment:					
Unemployed	89.5	91.9	91.6	88.5	86.0
Under 5 weeks	28.2	32.2	31.6	26.9	21.1
5 to 14 weeks	20.7	19.9	23.0	20.6	17.2
15 to 26 weeks	11.4	9.9	11.4	11.9	11.3
27 to 52 weeks	9.8	7.6	9.2	10.3	12.1
Over 52 weeks	19.4	22.3	16.4	18.8	24.3
Family farmworker	2.3	1.1	1.2	2.3	6.8
Reentrant to labor force	.7	.5	.2	.8	1.1
Underemployed	7.5	6.5	7.1	8.3	6.1
Not reported	(2,089)	(444)	(560)	(943)	(142)
Years of gainful employment:					
Under 3 years	38.1	91.8	71.1	13.5	5.4
3 to 9 years	36.6	8.0	28.6	52.4	20.4
10 years or more	25.2	.2	.3	34.1	74.2
Not reported	(1,309)	(302)	(425)	(481)	(101)
Public assistance status:					
Yes	9.6	5.4	5.8	13.0	8.4
No	90.4	94.6	94.2	87.0	91.6
Not reported	(2,152)	(337)	(585)	(1,018)	(212)

NOTE. "Not reported" excluded from percentages. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table B–4.—Part A, Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects by Year of School Completed

[Calendar year 1965]

Characteristics	Total	Years of school completed			
		Less than 9	9–11	12	Over 12
Total:					
Number reporting education	101,900	17,310	34,587	43,964	6,039
Percent reporting	100.0	17.0	33.9	43.1	5.9
Percent					
Sex:					
Male	60.0	78.9	63.9	51.3	46.5
Female	40.0	21.1	36.1	48.7	53.5
Race:					
White	66.5	69.9	60.9	69.0	69.7
Negro	31.5	26.8	36.8	29.5	28.7
Other nonwhite	2.1	3.2	2.3	1.5	1.6
Not obtained [1]	(8,391)	(1,835)	(3,087)	(3,008)	(461)
Family status:					
Head of family or household	51.4	63.3	54.6	44.2	50.8
Other	48.6	36.7	45.4	55.8	49.2
Not reported [1]	(632)	(98)	(203)	(302)	(29)
Wage earaer status:					
Primary	57.7	67.7	60.4	51.3	60.2
Other	42.3	32.3	39.6	48.7	39.8
Not reported [1]	(953)	(147)	(323)	(421)	(62)
Age:					
Under 19 years	18.4	20.1	20.1	18.6	1.9
19–21 years	23.5	15.1	25.8	25.8	17.8
22–34 years	33.4	25.6	34.1	35.2	39.8
35–44 years	14.7	19.6	12.8	13.0	23.4
45 and over	10.0	19.5	7.2	7.5	17.2
Employment status prior to enrollment:					
Unemployed	86.2	85.9	88.6	85.3	80.3
Under 5 weeks	28.2	25.2	27.9	29.9	25.8
5 to 14 weeks	20.1	19.3	20.9	20.2	17.7
15 to 26 weeks	11.4	11.3	12.3	10.7	11.3
27 to 52 weeks	9.5	9.3	10.1	9.2	9.3
Over 52 weeks	17.0	20.8	17.4	15.3	16.2
Family farmworker	1.8	6.6	.9	.8	.3
Reentrant to labor force	2.6	2.8	3.3	3.6	7.9
Underemployed	8.4	4.7	7.2	10.4	11.5
Not reported [1]	(2,242)	(377)	(730)	(1,038)	(97)
Years of gainful employment:					
Under 3 years	42.8	34.1	45.2	46.1	30.0
3 to 9 years	34.9	27.8	35.3	36.6	40.9
10 years or more	22.3	38.1	19.5	17.3	29.2
Not reported [1]	(1,274)	(193)	(405)	(619)	(57)
Public assistance status:					
Yes	11.2	17.1	14.2	7.2	5.5
No	88.8	82.9	85.8	92.8	94.5
Not reported [1]	(1,579)	(232)	(497)	(744)	(106)

[1] Not reported excluded from percentages.

NOTE. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table B–4.—Part B, Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects by Year of School Completed

[Calendar year 1964]

Characteristics	Total	Years of school completed			
		Less than 9	9–11	12	Over 12
Total:					
Number reporting education	99,823	16,972	32,834	43,784	6,233
Percent reporting	100.0	17.0	32.9	43.9	6.2
Percent					
Sex:					
Male	60.0	80.5	66.3	49.0	48.9
Female	40.0	19.5	33.7	51.0	51.1
Race:					
White	69.6	73.7	64.8	71.5	70.1
Negro	28.5	23.2	33.3	26.9	28.4
Other nonwhite	1.9	3.1	1.9	1.5	1.6
Not obtained [1]	(7,389)	(1,602)	(2,673)	(2,711)	(403)
Family status:					
Head of family or household	53.1	67.5	56.3	44.9	55.1
Other	46.9	32.5	43.7	55.1	44.9
Not reported [1]	(423)	(86)	(141)	(169)	(27)
Wage earner status:					
Primary	58.0	70.4	60.7	50.5	61.9
Other	42.0	29.6	39.3	49.5	38.1
Not reported [1]	(1,649)	(281)	(573)	(697)	(98)
Age:					
Under 19 years	15.3	16.1	16.8	15.7	1.4
19–21 years	23.7	14.4	26.4	26.0	19.0
22–34 years	34.0	26.6	34.3	35.7	40.1
35–44 years	16.5	21.4	14.7	14.8	23.7
45 and over	10.6	21.4	7.8	7.8	15.8
Employment status prior to enrollment:					
Unemployed	89.5	85.8	91.3	89.8	88.9
Under 5 weeks	28.2	26.3	27.2	29.9	27.0
5 to 14 weeks	20.7	18.6	21.8	20.8	20.4
15 to 26 weeks	11.4	10.3	12.2	11.3	11.4
27 to 52 weeks	9.8	10.2	10.2	9.3	10.6
Over 52 weeks	19.4	20.4	19.9	18.5	19.5
Family farmworker	2.3	9.0	1.2	.8	.4
Reentrant to labor force	.7	.4	.6	.7	1.3
Underemployed	7.5	4.9	6.8	8.8	9.4
Not reported [1]	(1,405)	(202)	(419)	(703)	(81)
Years of gainful employment:					
Under 3 years	38.1	27.3	39.7	42.7	27.4
3 to 9 years	36.6	30.0	37.2	38.1	41.2
10 years or more	25.2	42.7	23.1	19.2	31.4
Not reported [1]	(632)	(88)	(199)	(312)	(33)
Public assistance status:					
Yes	9.6	13.2	12.6	6.6	5.3
No	90.4	86.8	87.4	93.4	94.7
Not reported [1]	(1,466)	(234)	(499)	(646)	(87)

[1] Not reported excluded from percentages.

NOTE. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table B-5.—Part A, Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects by Race

[Calendar year 1965]

Characteristics	Total	Race					
		White			Nonwhite		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total:							
Number race obtained	94,501	62,735	40,483	22,252	31,766	16,453	15,313
Percent	100.0	66.4	64.5	35.5	33.6	51.8	48.2
Percent							
Family status:							
Head of family or household	51.9	51.6	59.2	37.7	52.6	58.3	46.5
Other	48.1	48.4	40.8	62.3	47.4	41.7	53.5
Not reported	(850)	(559)	(317)	(242)	(291)	(167)	(124)
Wage earner status:							
Primary	58.4	58.1	65.5	44.6	58.9	65.9	51.3
Other	41.6	41.9	34.5	55.4	41.1	34.1	48.7
Not reported	(1,168)	(767)	(421)	(346)	(401)	(191)	(210)
Age:							
Under 19 years	17.5	18.3	18.5	17.9	15.9	16.0	15.7
19 to 21 years	23.8	22.0	23.8	18.7	27.2	26.3	28.3
22 to 34 years	33.9	32.0	35.4	25.7	37.6	36.7	38.7
35 to 44 years	14.9	15.8	13.0	20.9	13.1	13.2	13.0
45 years and over	10.0	12.0	9.4	16.7	6.1	7.8	4.3
Highest grade completed:							
Less than 8th grade	6.8	6.6	8.8	2.8	7.1	10.4	3.4
8th grade	9.8	10.8	13.4	5.9	7.8	10.3	5.1
9th to 11th grade	33.7	30.9	32.3	28.3	39.2	45.4	32.6
12th grade	43.8	45.5	40.6	54.4	40.5	29.9	51.8
More than 12th grade	6.0	6.3	5.0	8.6	5.4	4.0	7.0
Not reported	(924)	(529)	(325)	(204)	(395)	(236)	(159)
Employment status prior to enrollment:							
Unemployed	86.6	86.1	88.0	82.6	87.8	88.7	86.7
Under 5 weeks	28.4	29.8	34.1	21.9	25.7	28.2	22.9
5 to 14 weeks	20.4	21.1	23.5	16.7	19.2	22.1	16.1
15 to 26 weeks	11.5	11.1	11.7	10.0	12.2	13.3	11.1
27 to 52 weeks	9.6	9.1	8.7	9.8	10.7	9.9	11.5
Over 52 weeks	16.7	15.0	10.0	24.2	20.0	15.2	25.1
Family farmworker	1.6	1.8	2.7	.2	1.2	2.0	.3
Reentrant to labor force	3.2	3.7	.7	9.2	2.3	.8	3.8
Underemployed	8.5	8.4	8.7	7.9	8.8	8.4	9.2
Not reported	(2,359)	(1,477)	(995)	(482)	(882)	(990)	(392)
Years of grainful employment:							
Under 3 years	42.0	40.0	34.9	49.4	45.9	37.4	55.0
3 to 9 years	35.3	35.6	36.0	34.9	34.7	35.9	33.3
10 years or more	22.7	24.3	29.1	15.7	19.4	26.7	11.7
Not reported	(1,448)	(871)	(559)	(312)	(577)	(334)	(243)
Public assistance status:							
Yes	11.2	8.7	7.6	10.8	16.0	13.6	18.5
No	88.8	91.3	92.4	89.2	84.0	86.4	81.5
Not reported	(1,788)	(1,196)	(756)	(440)	(592)	(335)	(257)

NOTE.—"Not reported" excluded from percentages. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table B-5.—Part B, Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects by Race

[Calendar year 1964]

Characteristics	Total	Race					
		White			Nonwhite		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total:							
Number race obtained	93,350	64,938	41,080	23,858	28,412	15,218	13,194
Percent	100.0	69.6	63.3	36.7	30.4	53.6	46.4
Percent							
Family status:							
Head of family or household	53.4	54.1	65.3	34.7	51.7	59.5	42.8
Other	46.6	45.9	34.7	65.3	48.3	40.5	57.2
Not reported	(991)	(643)	(351)	(292)	(348)	(220)	(128)
Wage earner status:							
Primary	58.2	59.1	70.2	39.9	56.2	64.1	47.2
Other	41.8	40.9	29.8	60.1	43.8	35.9	52.8
Not reported	(2,116)	(1,389)	(812)	(577)	(727)	(421)	(306)
Age:							
Under 19 years	14.9	15.1	14.3	16.6	14.5	15.3	13.7
19 to 21 years	23.8	21.9	23.8	18.7	27.9	28.1	27.8
22 to 34 years	34.1	32.3	36.0	26.0	38.3	36.4	40.4
35 to 44 years	16.6	17.9	15.3	22.5	13.5	13.2	13.9
45 years and over	10.6	12.7	10.6	16.3	5.7	7.1	4.2
Highest grade completed:							
Less than 8th grade	7.2	7.2	9.6	2.9	7.4	10.3	4.0
8th grade	9.4	10.4	13.6	4.9	7.0	9.2	4.4
9th to 11th grade	32.6	30.4	33.3	25.4	37.8	44.2	30.4
12th grade	44.4	45.7	38.2	58.6	41.6	31.5	53.1
More than 12th grade	6.3	6.3	5.3	8.1	6.2	4.6	8.0
Not reported	(916)	(605)	(359)	(246)	(311)	(207)	(104)
Employment status prior to enrollment:							
Unemployed	89.6	89.4	88.4	91.3	90.3	91.2	89.4
Under 5 weeks	28.3	29.6	32.9	24.0	25.3	28.2	22.1
5 to 14 weeks	20.9	21.1	23.7	16.6	20.4	23.4	16.9
15 to 26 weeks	11.5	11.5	11.9	10.9	11.5	12.1	10.9
27 to 52 weeks	9.9	9.6	9.1	10.4	10.8	10.6	11.0
Over 52 weeks	19.0	17.6	10.8	29.4	22.3	16.9	28.5
Family farmworker	2.1	2.4	3.7	.3	1.2	1.9	.5
Reentrant to labor force	.6	.7	.2	1.6	.5	.1	.9
Underemployed	7.5	7.4	7.6	6.9	8.0	6.8	9.3
Not reported	(1,953)	(1,344)	(810)	(534)	(609)	(335)	(274)
Years of gainful employment:							
Under 3 years	37.7	35.1	29.1	45.6	43.4	37.1	50.7
3 to 9 years	36.9	37.5	37.9	36.8	35.7	35.4	36.0
10 years or more	25.4	27.4	33.1	17.5	20.9	27.5	13.3
Not reported	(1,240)	(755)	(407)	(348)	(485)	(293)	(192)
Public assistance status:							
Yes	9.5	7.2	6.7	8.1	14.9	12.4	17.6
No	90.5	92.8	93.3	91.9	85.1	87.6	82.4
Not reported	(2,008)	(1,316)	(854)	(462)	(692)	(416)	(276)

NOTE.—"Not reported" excluded from percentages. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table B–6.—Selected Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA in Institutional Projects by State

[Calendar year 1965]

States	Total number of trainees	Male	White	Education		Age			Weeks unemployed		
				Under 8	12 and over	Under 19	19–21	45 and over	Under 5	5–14	15 and over
Total	102,989	60.0	66.4	7.1	49.0	18.4	23.6	10.0	28.1	20.1	37.9
Alabama	1,976	48.1	70.2	3.0	60.2	15.1	20.8	6.6	35.1	17.8	41.3
Alaska	523	75.1	60.8	12.8	48.4	6.7	16.3	12.4	26.8	33.5	38.7
Arizona	587	37.6	71.8	9.0	34.4	17.0	25.7	8.7	35.1	20.6	58.4
Arkansas	884	40.6	61.8	4.1	53.0	29.6	27.6	5.2	32.5	20.5	35.8
California	9,605	34.1	75.3	3.2	62.7	10.8	18.9	15.9	19.1	17.9	35.9
Colorado	1,595	60.8	85.8	15.8	32.1	15.7	25.9	7.5	28.9	24.5	45.0
Connecticut	2,715	78.2	76.0	3.7	50.9	21.4	30.6	6.1	30.7	20.3	25.3
Delaware	177	37.3	23.5	5.1	13.0	26.6	28.8	2.8	12.2	12.2	61.6
District of Columbia	1,151	50.6	12.9	7.2	54.4	17.1	25.6	9.8	22.6	18.6	36.9
Florida	2,573	48.5	60.9	4.9	47.7	19.1	23.9	11.4	48.5	16.5	33.5
Georgia	2,331	39.2	45.7	9.1	47.6	15.1	23.6	9.0	40.1	20.3	35.6
Guam	99	43.4	1.9	2.0	64.6	36.4	59.6	--	27.3	18.2	27.3
Hawaii	208	26.9	18.8	5.8	67.5	32.2	17.3	4.3	19.4	21.4	37.9
Idaho	276	60.1	96.1	.7	48.0	13.8	23.9	8.3	36.8	17.8	20.8
Illinois	6,642	54.5	45.6	6.6	47.4	12.9	17.4	9.8	22.0	17.0	33.1
Indiana	2,209	61.9	63.5	4.5	41.6	18.8	22.5	13.4	22.9	21.1	36.6
Iowa	757	65.8	94.7	.8	61.4	14.7	19.7	7.4	38.3	30.9	26.3
Kansas	1,285	60.9	73.5	3.0	42.4	10.7	18.1	10.9	44.3	22.1	33.0
Kentucky	2,463	47.6	75.0	5.6	43.8	37.6	27.3	4.5	23.3	16.5	33.3
Louisiana	1,260	64.9	59.9	5.2	55.8	17.1	27.1	3.3	31.4	24.7	30.6
Maine	1,029	55.9	99.7	10.1	44.3	25.6	23.8	12.8	31.8	23.1	40.4
Maryland	1,237	62.3	37.5	11.8	31.7	23.3	21.9	7.0	20.4	16.3	44.6
Massachusetts	4,065	72.8	82.3	9.3	38.7	20.7	19.0	14.8	33.2	21.7	42.2
Michigan	6,020	58.8	46.3	6.8	45.3	19.3	25.8	8.9	22.8	16.7	39.3
Minnesota	2,560	56.4	93.8	1.0	66.5	17.8	18.9	12.1	18.5	18.9	41.4
Mississippi	971	92.2	67.2	15.1	35.1	10.3	19.2	14.3	28.6	23.0	30.4
Missouri	2,773	61.9	59.0	6.1	43.8	12.3	18.7	9.5	30.9	23.2	42.5
Montana	309	86.7	92.1	6.1	42.5	12.9	15.2	18.8	50.8	24.1	25.1
Nebraska	218	52.8	88.7	1.8	45.1	14.7	24.3	9.6	33.0	30.3	35.8
Nevada	634	52.2	81.5	1.4	61.0	13.9	14.7	14.0	30.8	21.8	42.8
New Hampshire	654	89.1	99.8	2.3	53.5	22.8	20.3	10.7	55.6	20.7	21.6
New Jersey	1,049	69.5	72.7	5.2	54.5	13.4	13.6	16.7	25.7	22.5	34.8
New Mexico	452	54.9	83.7	8.9	33.9	21.2	28.3	8.0	28.5	24.4	42.2
New York	6,048	55.9	51.8	2.9	47.4	16.3	24.4	10.5	21.9	23.3	39.9
North Carolina	1,173	74.2	51.7	17.7	45.5	17.5	20.5	9.7	43.6	16.1	25.8
North Dakota	166	57.2	96.0	.6	65.5	22.3	22.3	9.0	46.0	21.1	31.0
Ohio	5,662	59.7	63.8	2.8	51.5	25.7	30.4	6.4	28.2	22.0	42.6
Oklahoma	1,153	56.3	74.3	2.9	49.1	13.6	27.2	7.3	34.9	22.7	34.8
Oregon	993	50.3	96.1	1.5	60.0	24.2	33.4	5.8	33.5	29.0	25.8
Pennsylvania	6,479	78.0	71.2	2.6	57.8	21.2	18.1	7.9	25.3	20.0	41.9
Puerto Rico	2,434	87.7	80.5	44.2	25.7	7.1	16.4	24.1	14.9	12.1	29.1
Rhode Island	505	75.2	86.6	18.0	27.2	44.6	25.3	5.1	41.4	25.3	31.7
South Carolina	2,184	56.8	40.8	27.1	27.1	14.6	20.9	15.2	44.0	19.8	32.3
South Dakota	82	100.0	96.1	2.4	54.9	--	13.4	7.3	31.3	31.3	23.8
Tennessee	2,591	67.0	50.2	13.0	35.3	22.7	31.4	9.0	25.3	18.4	38.9
Texas	2,636	59.7	66.5	9.0	52.3	22.5	35.7	2.5	46.3	19.4	26.8
Utah	391	60.4	94.4	3.8	43.7	28.1	26.6	9.0	15.2	18.9	36.7
Vermont	445	65.8	99.5	5.4	43.0	22.7	21.1	15.5	37.4	18.5	34.5
Virgin Islands	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Virginia	1,488	57.5	70.6	18.8	38.7	16.6	20.2	10.2	35.1	22.4	36.2
Washington	3,763	82.9	84.9	1.5	73.1	24.5	36.6	3.4	33.1	21.9	36.1
West Virginia	1,418	66.6	91.4	11.5	40.4	19.0	21.9	9.4	11.8	24.4	61.9
Wisconsin	1,893	71.8	67.2	3.6	43.2	26.5	39.5	7.7	23.3	21.3	41.0
Wyoming	198	52.5	91.3	2.6	50.0	18.7	16.7	9.6	33.7	17.9	26.0

Table C-1.—Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Training Projects by Occupational Group by Calendar Year

[Percentage Distribution]

Occupational group	1965	1964	1963	1962
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial	9.1	9.6	10.0	6.5
Clerical and sales	21.2	22.5	21.4	23.0
Service	13.7	13.1	9.8	5.4
Agriculture	3.4	4.3	2.5	1.3
Skilled occupations	26.4	28.4	31.7	43.6
Semi-skilled occupations	17.2	16.8	22.2	20.2
Other [1]	9.1	5.3	2.5	-------

[1] Includes pretraining courses, and DOT not reported.

NOTE.—Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table C-2.—Age of Trainee by Occupational Group of Training for Projects Started During 1965 and 1964

Occupational group	Total	Male	Female	Years of age				
				Under 19	19-21	22-34	35-44	45 and over
Calendar year 1965								
Total:								
Number	103,002	61,785	41,217	18,940	24,301	34,372	15,099	10,290
Percent	100.0	60.0	40.0	18.4	23.6	33.4	14.7	10.0
Professional and managerial	9,369	3,983	5,386	14.9	18.8	37.0	17.5	11.8
Clerical and sales	21,786	2,673	19,113	17.6	24.1	32.0	16.2	10.1
Service	14,074	3,890	10,184	18.7	22.9	29.6	15.6	13.2
Agricultural	3,462	3,434	28	8.8	12.2	29.7	20.5	28.8
Skilled occupations	27,230	26,433	797	16.0	22.6	39.6	13.5	8.4
Semiskilled occupations	17,755	15,013	2,742	18.5	24.4	36.8	13.8	6.6
Other [1]	9,326	6,359	2,967	33.6	34.0	15.4	9.7	7.3
Calendar year 1964								
Total:								
Number	100,822	60,538	40,284	15,427	23,933	34,217	16,568	10,677
Percent	100.0	60.0	40.0	15.3	23.7	33.9	16.4	10.6
Professional and managerial	9,628	3,937	5,691	11.8	20.6	37.1	20.2	10.3
Clerical and sales	22,692	2,462	20,230	17.7	25.0	30.3	17.3	9.6
Service	13,226	4,368	8,858	13.1	21.7	32.5	17.2	15.5
Agricultural	4,325	4,283	42	4.1	10.7	31.0	24.5	29.7
Skilled occupations	28,683	27,968	715	12.0	22.5	40.4	15.9	9.3
Semiskilled occupations	16,934	13,520	3,414	18.4	26.7	33.7	14.0	7.1
Other [1]	5,334	4,000	1,334	33.9	36.9	15.5	7.9	5.8

[1] Includes pretraining courses and DOT not reported.

Table C-3.—Educational Attainment of Trainee by Occupational Group of Training for Projects Started During 1965 and 1964

Occupational group	Total	Male	Female	Highest grade completed					
				Under 8	8	9-11	12	over 12	Not reported
	Part A—percent distribution by educational level								
Calendar year 1965									
Total:									
Number	103,002	61,785	41,217	7,251	10,072	34,594	43,998	6,058	1,029
Percent	100.0	60.0	40.0	7.0	9.8	33.6	42.7	5.9	1.0
Professional and managerial	9,369	42.5	57.5	.2	1.1	13.3	65.7	19.3	.5
Clerical and sales	21,786	12.3	87.7	.6	2.4	23.9	62.5	9.5	1.1
Service	14,074	27.6	72.4	8.2	12.0	41.2	33.8	3.4	1.3
Agricultural	3,462	99.3	(1)	35.3	15.7	25.9	18.5	2.9	1.7
Skilled occupations	27,230	97.1	2.9	6.6	12.2	38.2	38.6	3.6	.8
Semiskilled occupations	17,755	84.6	15.4	6.6	12.0	40.0	37.4	3.2	.8
Other [2]	9,326	68.2	31.8	19.1	18.8	42.1	18.0	.8	1.3
Calendar year 1964									
Total:									
Number	100,822	60,538	40,284	7,596	9,376	32,834	43,784	6,233	999
Percent	100.0	60.0	40.0	7.5	9.3	32.6	43.4	6.2	1.0
Professional and managerial	9,628	40.9	59.1	.3	1.6	17.5	64.3	15.6	.8
Clerical and sales	22,692	10.8	89.2	.4	1.6	20.4	65.9	10.5	1.2
Service	13,226	33.0	67.0	8.8	11.1	39.5	36.1	4.0	.5
Agricultural	4,325	99.0	1.0	47.0	15.4	22.0	12.1	2.3	1.2
Skilled occupations	28,683	97.5	2.5	7.4	12.6	37.4	37.4	4.3	.9
Semiskilled occupations	16,934	79.8	20.2	8.0	12.9	40.5	34.9	2.7	1.0
Other [2]	5,334	75.0	25.0	15.3	17.4	51.4	13.0	.6	2.4
	Part B—percent distribution by occupation of training								
Calendar year 1965									
Total:									
Number	103,002	61,785	41,217	7,251	10,072	34,594	43,998	6,058	----------
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	----------
Professional and managerial	9.1	6.4	13.1	.2	1.0	3.6	14.0	29.8	----------
Clerical and sales	21.2	4.3	46.4	1.7	5.2	15.1	30.9	34.1	----------
Service	13.7	6.3	24.7	15.9	16.7	16.8	10.8	8.0	----------
Agricultural	3.4	5.6	(1)	16.9	5.4	2.6	1.5	1.7	----------
Skilled occupations	26.4	42.8	1.9	24.6	33.1	30.1	23.9	16.0	----------
Semiskilled occupations	17.2	24.3	6.7	16.1	21.1	20.5	15.1	9.3	----------
Other [2]	9.1	10.3	7.2	24.5	17.4	11.3	3.8	1.2	----------
Calendar year 1964									
Total:									
Number	100,822	60,538	40,284	7,596	9,376	32,834	43,784	6,233	----------
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	----------
Professional and managerial	9.5	6.5	14.1	.3	1.6	5.1	14.1	24.1	----------
Clerical and sales	22.5	4.1	50.2	1.3	3.9	14.1	34.1	38.2	----------
Service	13.1	7.2	22.0	15.2	15.6	15.9	10.9	8.5	----------
Agricultural	4.3	7.1	.1	26.8	7.1	2.9	1.2	1.6	----------
Skilled occupations	28.4	46.2	1.8	27.8	38.6	32.7	24.5	19.7	----------
Semiskilled occupations	16.8	22.3	8.5	17.7	23.3	20.9	13.5	7.3	----------
Other [2]	5.3	6.6	3.3	10.8	9.9	8.3	1.6	.5	----------

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[1] Less than 0.1 percent.

[2] Includes pretraining courses and DOT not reported.

NOTE.—Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table C-4.—Race of Trainee by Occupational Group of Training for Projects Started During 1965 and 1964

Occupational group	Calendar year 1965			Calendar year 1964		
	Total race obtained	White	Nonwhite [1]	Total race obtained	White	Nonwhite [1]
Distribution by race						
Total	94, 501	66. 4	33. 6	93, 350	69. 6	30. 4
Professional and managerial	8, 636	80. 3	19. 7	9, 034	75. 7	24. 3
Clerical and sales	20, 223	64. 4	35. 6	21, 099	69. 8	30. 2
Service	12, 742	52. 4	47. 6	11, 987	54. 6	45. 4
Agricultural	2, 842	75. 5	24. 5	3, 716	74. 9	25. 1
Skilled occupations	25, 384	74. 9	25. 1	27, 024	77. 2	22. 8
Semiskilled occupations	16, 383	66. 8	33. 2	15, 758	68. 3	31. 7
Other [2]	8, 291	48. 2	51. 8	4, 732	51. 4	48. 6
Distribution by occupation						
Total	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0
Professional and managerial	9. 1	11. 1	5. 4	9. 7	10. 5	7. 7
Clerical and sales	21. 4	20. 8	22. 7	22. 6	22. 7	22. 5
Service	13. 5	10. 6	19. 1	12. 8	10. 1	19. 2
Agricultural	3. 0	3. 4	2. 2	4. 0	4. 3	3. 3
Skilled occupations	26. 9	30. 3	20. 0	28. 9	32. 1	21. 7
Semiskilled occupations	17. 3	17. 4	17. 1	16. 9	16. 7	17. 6
Other [2]	8. 8	6. 4	13. 5	5. 1	3. 7	8. 1

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[1] Ninety-four percent are Negro.

[2] Includes pretraining courses and DOT not reported.

NOTE: Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table C-5.—Occupational Group of Training Given Trainees Enrolled in Institutional Projects Started During 1965, by State

[Percent]

	Total number of trainees	Professional and managerial	Clerical and sales	Services	Agriculture	Skilled occupations	Semiskilled occupations	Other [1]
Total	103,002	9.1	21.2	13.7	3.4	26.4	17.2	9.1
Alabama	1,976	14.1	19.7	6.9	- -	23.2	36.0	.1
Alaska	523	12.4	17.4	6.1	- -	27.3	36.5	.2
Arizona	587	2.0	13.3	43.1	14.1	- -	23.2	4.3
Arkansas	884	10.9	37.0	15.6	1.9	17.2	12.9	4.5
California	9,605	13.2	43.1	15.9	8.5	5.5	8.3	5.5
Colorado	1,595	6.4	10.0	10.2	- -	11.4	17.2	44.8
Connecticut	2,715	1.8	14.0	7.7	- -	54.6	19.9	2.1
Delaware	177	- -	- -	39.5	- -	12.4	12.4	35.6
District of Columbia	1,151	18.2	30.5	19.6	- -	14.0	9.4	8.3
Florida	2,573	- -	26.2	27.2	- -	29.1	13.2	4.2
Georgia	2,331	3.3	31.0	27.8	1.8	28.7	7.5	- -
Guam	99	- -	58.6	- -	- -	41.4	- -	- -
Hawaii	208	- -	27.4	58.2	7.7	6.7	- -	- -
Idaho	276	8.3	33.0	8.7	- -	16.7	33.3	- -
Illinois	6,644	17.9	13.1	8.1	1.4	22.9	30.8	5.7
Indiana	2,209	6.8	8.5	15.0	.6	37.9	11.5	19.7
Iowa	757	16.5	26.4	4.9	3.0	39.5	8.5	1.2
Kansas	1,285	9.4	23.2	4.8	- -	25.1	7.2	30.4
Kentucky	2,464	2.1	33.2	26.0	- -	26.7	9.5	2.4
Louisiana	1,260	2.5	17.9	12.9	- -	62.8	4.0	- -
Maine	1,029	6.3	14.5	14.1	- -	35.6	17.6	12.0
Maryland	1,237	8.7	6.8	20.9	1.5	26.2	16.4	19.6
Massachusetts	4,066	8.7	16.3	9.2	.7	34.2	14.9	16.0
Michigan	6,020	13.3	11.2	11.5	1.3	21.5	11.3	29.8
Minnesota	2,560	21.1	35.8	6.4	6.6	20.5	9.0	.6
Mississippi	972	6.3	4.8	1.5	- -	55.3	32.0	- -
Missouri	2,773	5.7	23.1	10.3	1.2	25.8	8.4	25.5
Montana	309	19.1	.3	- -	5.5	53.1	6.1	15.9
Nebraska	218	4.1	52.3	6.9	- -	2.8	.9	33.0
Nevada	634	13.4	35.8	24.1	4.9	16.7	5.0	- -
New Hampshire	654	.2	9.3	.5	- -	48.9	41.1	- -
New Jersey	1,049	15.0	13.3	2.6	1.7	50.3	17.1	- -
New Mexico	452	.2	14.2	51.5	1.8	20.8	9.7	1.8
New York	6,048	6.5	33.8	11.7	- -	28.7	12.5	6.8
North Carolina	1,173	1.7	10.1	18.2	2.6	5.5	61.9	.1
North Dakota	166	21.1	32.5	14.5	- -	4.8	27.1	- -
Ohio	5,662	10.4	30.9	12.5	4.7	21.3	17.5	2.7
Oklahoma	1,153	2.8	23.8	7.5	- -	29.6	36.2	.3
Oregon	993	9.6	20.1	15.6	.7	4.9	15.3	33.7
Pennsylvania	6,482	10.4	12.4	14.0	1.0	40.3	20.2	1.7
Puerto Rico	2,434	5.0	4.9	4.8	46.1	36.3	2.8	- -
Rhode Island	505	4.8	11.3	12.5	.2	32.9	18.4	20.0
South Carolina	2,184	1.4	8.4	25.7	4.0	34.8	13.0	12.6
South Dakota	82	- -	- -	- -	- -	100.0	- -	- -
Tennessee	2,591	1.4	10.2	17.9	3.6	27.2	19.0	20.6
Texas	2,638	.7	24.9	14.9	5.3	41.6	12.6	- -
Utah	391	10.2	19.4	7.7	- -	24.6	.5	37.6
Vermont	446	5.2	4.0	34.5	11.7	20.9	14.6	9.2
Virgin Islands	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Virginia	1,489	- -	22.8	31.6	1.7	27.5	16.5	- -
Washington	3,763	20.9	7.0	3.6	1.7	11.0	43.1	12.7
West Virginia	1,419	9.0	19.2	16.6	- -	20.9	25.4	8.9
Wisconsin	1,893	2.4	17.5	11.3	- -	36.7	29.8	2.3
Wyoming	198	13.1	23.7	30.3	- -	31.8	.5	.5

[1] Includes pretaining courses and DOT not reported.

NOTE.—Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table D–1.—Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Basic Education Courses

[Calendar year 1965]

Characteristics	Total enrolled		Male	Female
	Number	Percent	Percent	Percent
Total	9,802	100.0	64.2	35.8
Race:				
White	4,223	48.1	55.3	34.9
Nonwhite	4,552	51.9	44.7	65.1
Not obtained	1,027	(1,027)	(595)	(432)
Family status:				
Head of family or household	4,296	44.1	49.5	34.5
Other	5,443	55.9	50.5	65.5
Not reported	63	(63)	(45)	(18)
Wage earner status:				
Primary	4,839	49.8	55.3	39.9
Other	4,883	50.2	44.7	60.1
Not reported	80	(80)	(51)	(29)
Age:				
Under 19 years	2,832	28.9	27.2	31.9
19 to 21 years	3,045	31.1	28.9	34.9
22 to 34 years	2,039	20.8	22.9	17.0
35 to 44 years	1,152	11.8	12.4	10.6
45 years and over	734	7.5	8.5	5.7
Highest grade completed:				
Less than 8th grade	1,621	16.7	21.4	8.3
8th grade	1,730	17.8	21.0	12.2
9th to 11th grade	4,239	43.6	43.1	44.7
12th grade	2,000	20.6	13.4	33.4
Highest grade completed—Con.				
More than 12th grade	122	1.3	1.2	1.4
Not reported	90	(90)	(60)	(30)
Employment status prior to enrollment:				
Unemployed	8,528	88.8	90.4	85.9
Under 5 weeks	2,198	22.9	26.6	16.1
5 to 14 weeks	1,842	19.2	22.4	13.4
15 to 26 weeks	1,212	12.6	13.1	11.8
27 to 52 weeks	1,021	10.6	10.4	11.1
Over 52 weeks	2,255	23.5	17.9	33.5
Family farm worker	152	1.6	2.3	.3
Reentrant to labor force	396	4.1	1.9	8.1
Underemployed	529	5.5	5.4	5.7
Not reported	197	(197)	(115)	(82)
Years of gainful employment:				
Under 3 years	5,707	58.8	51.1	72.5
3 to 9 years	2,186	22.5	24.7	18.7
10 years or more	1,810	18.7	24.2	8.8
Not reported	99	(99)	(68)	(31)
Public assistance status:				
Yes	1,662	17.2	14.6	21.8
No	8,019	82.8	85.4	78.2
Not reported	121	(121)	(76)	(45)

NOTE.—"Not reported" excluded from percentages. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table D–2.—Selected Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Basic Education Courses by State

[Calendar year 1965]

	Total enrolled	Total reporting basic education	Percent								
			Percent in basic education	Male	White	Education			Age		
						8 and less	9–11	12 and over	Under 22	22–44	45 and over
U.S. totals	103,002	9,802	9.5	64.2	48.1	34.5	43.6	21.9	60.0	32.6	7.5
Alabama	1,976	1	(¹)	100.0	--	--	--	100.0	100.0	--	--
Alaska	523	33	6.3	81.8	18.5	51.5	33.3	15.2	21.2	63.6	15.2
Arizona	587	124	21.1	52.4	64.9	45.2	46.8	8.1	33.1	60.5	6.5
Arkansas	884	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
California	9,605	763	7.9	49.0	31.9	11.7	43.4	44.9	75.6	19.5	4.8
Colorado	1,595	546	34.2	85.7	81.6	52.6	43.0	4.4	54.6	40.9	4.6
Connecticut	2,715	50	1.8	74.0	40.5	79.6	16.3	4.1	2.0	94.0	4.0
Delaware	177	22	12.4	--	28.6	22.7	59.1	18.1	13.6	86.3	--
District of Columbia	1,151	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Florida	2,573	119	4.6	71.4	61.6	16.8	42.0	41.2	94.9	4.2	.8
Georgia	2,331	247	10.6	81.0	89.7	23.0	42.5	34.4	46.2	43.7	10.1
Guam	99	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Hawaii	208	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Idaho	276	1	.4	--	100.0	--	--	100.0	100.0	--	--
Illinois	6,644	636	9.6	59.9	31.1	51.5	29.4	19.1	15.9	68.5	15.6
Indiana	2,209	46	2.1	60.9	70.0	28.3	47.8	23.9	58.7	37.0	4.3
Iowa	757	32	4.2	81.3	100.0	--	6.3	93.8	28.1	71.9	--
Kansas	1,285	177	13.8	84.2	38.8	31.6	45.8	22.6	11.3	61.6	27.1
Kentucky	2,464	988	40.1	51.7	51.5	29.9	51.1	19.0	97.9	1.3	.9
Louisiana	1,260	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Maine	1,029	158	15.4	74.1	100.0	64.8	33.3	1.9	86.1	13.3	.6
Maryland	1,237	418	33.8	69.6	22.5	44.8	47.0	8.2	60.0	35.6	4.3
Massachusetts	4,066	464	11.4	68.3	80.5	57.0	38.1	4.9	78.6	18.1	3.2
Michigan	6,020	671	11.1	68.4	41.5	40.3	48.5	11.1	52.6	34.9	12.5
Minnesota	2,560	1	(¹)	100.0	100.0	--	--	100.0	--	100.0	--
Mississippi	972	173	17.8	74.0	56.9	35.1	36.3	28.6	30.1	57.3	12.7
Missouri	2,773	445	16.0	80.9	47.4	38.3	45.4	16.2	37.6	49.9	12.6
Montana	309	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Nebraska	218	17	7.8	82.4	62.5	29.3	58.8	11.8	94.1	5.9	--
Nevada	634	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
New Hampshire	654	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
New Jersey	1,049	60	5.7	98.3	67.3	50.0	43.3	6.7	100.0	--	--
New Mexico	452	137	30.3	56.2	85.7	10.9	59.1	29.9	100.0	--	--
New York	6,048	1,214	20.1	52.1	16.3	14.8	55.7	29.5	62.7	31.4	5.9
North Carolina	1,173	214	18.2	57.0	18.4	79.9	17.3	2.8	5.2	81.8	13.1
North Dakota	166	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Ohio	5,662	629	11.1	63.0	46.1	29.6	48.2	22.3	85.8	12.4	1.7
Oklahoma	1,153	2	.2	100.0	100.0	--	100.0	--	100.0	--	--
Oregon	993	175	17.6	27.4	93.0	6.9	28.2	65.0	17.7	65.2	17.1
Pennsylvania	6,482	55	.8	100.0	87.0	7.3	45.5	47.3	32.7	65.4	1.8
Puerto Rico	2,434	87	3.6	96.6	94.9	87.2	8.1	4.7	6.8	47.1	46.0
Rhode Island	505	8	1.6	62.5	85.7	50.0	50.0	--	100.0	--	--
South Carolina	2,184	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
South Dakota	82	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Tennessee	2,591	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Texas	2,638	192	7.3	81.3	80.0	50.3	19.1	30.6	63.0	30.2	6.8
Utah	391	20	5.1	100.0	94.7	--	5.0	95.0	25.0	70.0	5.0
Vermont	446	48	10.8	68.8	97.7	60.4	39.6	--	89.6	8.4	2.1
Virgin Islands	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Virginia	1,489	88	5.9	88.6	7.4	52.2	25.0	22.7	59.1	33.0	8.0
Washington	3,763	200	5.3	67.0	26.5	37.5	48.5	14.0	23.0	66.5	10.5
West Virginia	1,419	63	4.4	55.6	90.3	33.4	22.2	44.5	63.5	20.6	15.9
Wisconsin	1,893	478	25.3	65.9	46.9	24.9	50.5	24.5	78.8	12.4	8.8
Wyoming	198	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

[1] Less than 0.1 percent.

NOTE.—Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table D-3.—Percent of Population 25 Years Old or Over Completing Less Than 8 Years of School, 1960 Census of Population

	Population 25 years and over	Less than 8 years school completed—Percent						
		Total	Male	Female	White	Nonwhite	Urban	Rural
U.S. totals	100,408,211	22.3	24.0	20.5	19.5	46.8	19.7	28.4
Alabama	1,669,871	38.5	40.8	36.5	29.6	63.4	30.5	48.9
Alaska	104,887	15.7	16.0	15.2	5.8	58.9	7.9	21.4
Arizona	661,102	20.9	22.9	19.0	17.9	57.1	17.2	33.0
Arkansas	964,032	34.4	37.6	31.6	27.6	63.9	25.8	41.2
California	8,868,907	14.7	16.2	13.3	13.7	26.9	13.8	20.2
Colorado	940,803	13.4	15.1	11.9	13.1	20.9	12.2	17.0
Connecticut	1,481,788	18.5	19.5	17.5	18.0	32.4	19.5	14.2
Delaware	245,692	19.7	22.0	17.3	16.0	44.5	17.0	25.1
District of Columbia	460,797	21.2	24.0	19.0	11.9	31.2	--	--
Florida	2,845,445	22.9	25.3	20.6	16.7	58.1	20.5	30.2
Georgia	2,014,845	40.2	42.7	38.1	30.9	68.6	33.2	49.9
Guam	28,0[illegible]4	38.5	34.4	46.5				
Hawaii	308,910	26.6	28.5	24.6	13.1	32.8	23.1	39.1
Idaho	340,412	10.7	13.0	8.5	10.4	31.6	9.5	11.9
Illinois	5,808,313	18.1	19.5	16.8	16.5	33.0	17.9	18.3
Indiana	2,550,162	16.9	19.1	15.1	16.0	32.8	17.2	16.4
Iowa	1,541,333	13.7	16.4	11.0	13.5	28.4	12.8	14.7
Kansas	1,215,923	13.1	15.0	11.1	12.4	29.0	12.6	14.0
Kentucky	1,609,957	33.2	37.1	29.6	32.2	46.5	24.0	41.4
Louisiana	1,639,215	41.9	44.1	39.9	31.6	68.5	35.0	54.9
Maine	534,318	15.8	18.2	13.4	15.7	21.4	18.2	13.0
Maryland	1,692,562	27.3	29.2	25.3	23.4	48.5	24.6	34.7
Massachusetts	3,010,617	17.3	18.2	16.5	17.2	25.4	17.9	14.5
Michigan	4,216,909	17.5	19.4	15.5	16.0	33.3	17.5	17.6
Minnesota	1,844,601	14.6	17.1	12.2	14.6	24.8	12.0	18.9
Mississippi	1,064,976	37.8	41.8	34.2	20.3	69.0	27.6	44.7
Missouri	2,492,554	21.5	23.7	19.5	19.9	38.7	19.6	25.3
Montana	356,087	13.3	15.8	10.8	12.7	36.2	11.9	14.8
Nebraska	791,018	12.2	13.9	10.5	11.8	27.7	11.0	13.4
Nevada	159,974	10.9	12.9	8.6	8.9	39.0	10.2	12.8
New Hampshire	345,230	16.4	17.9	14.8	16.4	20.2	18.6	13.0
New Jersey	3,599,856	20.6	21.5	19.7	19.2	36.3	20.6	20.9
New Mexico	444,503	24.2	25.4	23.1	22.0	55.3	18.0	36.8
New York	10,124,045	19.5	20.3	18.8	18.4	30.7	19.9	17.0
North Carolina	2,307,171	41.5	45.4	37.7	35.8	61.8	33.0	47.4
North Dakota	323,615	18.3	20.5	16.2	18.1	42.1	14.0	20.7
Ohio	5,377,547	17.7	19.5	16.1	16.4	34.3	17.8	17.3
Oklahoma	1,299,842	23.4	26.0	21.0	21.9	40.8	18.5	31.6
Oregon	996,083	12.1	14.4	9.9	11.8	28.1	11.1	13.8
Pennsylvania	6,605,713	21.6	22.9	20.4	20.4	36.1	21.6	21.4
Puerto Rico	927,881							
Rhode Island	498,159	23.5	24.0	23.3	23.5	28.3	23.9	21.3
South Carolina	1,135,907	43.4	46.7	40.6	31.9	71.0	34.3	50.7
South Dakota	360,135	13.8	15.7	12.0	13.1	38.0	9.9	15.1
Tennessee	1,911,755	34.8	38.4	31.7	31.4	54.8	27.6	43.3
Texas	5,030,559	30.2	32.3	28.1	27.7	48.7	26.9	39.2
Utah	419,381	8.9	9.9	8.0	8.5	32.8	8.5	10.4
Vermont	212,906	14.6	17.3	12.0	14.6	22.4	15.1	14.2
Virgin Islands	14,182	61.2	61.1	61.3				
Virginia	2,083,159	36.4	40.2	32.5	30.6	60.6	25.5	50.5
Washington	1,577,155	11.7	13.7	9.8	11.3	25.5	10.9	13.6
West Virginia	999,731	30.5	33.9	27.3	29.8	44.6	21.2	37.0
Wisconsin	2,175,370	17.7	20.0	15.7	17.5	31.7	16.0	21.2
Wyoming	174,252	11.7	13.9	9.0	11.2	27.3	10.8	12.5

Table E-1.—Labor Force Status of Persons Completing MDTA Institutional Training Courses by Year of Completion and Sex

	Total		Male		Female			Total		Male		Female	
Calendar Year 1964							*Calendar Year 1963*						
Number canvassed	40,066		21,110		18,956		Number canvassed	19,673		11,297		8,376	
Number reporting labor force status	33,672		17,133		16,539		Number reporting labor force status	13,113		7,275		5,838	
Percent reporting labor force status	84.0		81.2		87.2		Percent reporting labor force status	66.7		64.4		67.7	
Percent reporting	100.0		50.9		49.1		Percent reporting	100.0		55.5		44.5	
Percent: Total reporting	100.0	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	Percent: Total reporting	100.0	------	100.0	------	100.0	------
In the labor force	92.2	100.0	95.9	100.0	88.3	100.0	In the labor force	89.9	100.0	95.1	100.0	83.6	100.0
Employed	74.4	80.7	79.1	82.5	69.5	78.7	Employed	76.5	85.1	82.9	87.2	68.6	82.1
Unemployed	17.8	19.3	16.8	17.5	18.8	21.3	Unemployed	13.4	14.9	12.2	12.8	15.0	17.9
Not in the labor force	7.8	------	4.1	------	11.7	------	Not in the labor force	10.1	------	4.9	------	16.4	------

Table E-2.—Labor Force Status of Persons Completing MDTA Institutional Training Courses by Year of Completion and Race

	Total race obtained		White		Nonwhite		Negro	
Calendar Year 1964								
Number—race obtained	37,327		26,456		10,871		10,188	
Number reporting labor force status	31,402		22,848		8,554		8,013	
Percent reporting labor force status	84.1		86.4		78.7		78.7	
Percent reporting	100.0		72.8		27.2		25.5	
Percent: Total reporting	100.0	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	100.0	------
In the labor force	92.2	100.0	92.0	100.0	92.6	100.0	92.5	100.0
Employed	74.5	80.8	77.2	83.9	67.3	72.7	66.9	72.3
Unemployed	17.7	19.2	14.8	16.1	25.3	27.3	25.6	27.7
Not in the labor force	7.8	------	8.0	------	7.4	------	7.5	------
Calendar Year 1963								
Number—race obtained	18,380		14,287		4,093		3,701	
Number reporting labor force status	12,274		9,745		2,529		2,272	
Percent reporting labor force status	66.8		68.2		61.8		61.4	
Percent reporting	100.0		79.4		20.6		18.5	
Percent: Total reporting	100.0	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	100.0	------
In the labor force	90.0	100.0	89.3	100.0	92.7	100.0	93.2	100.0
Employed	76.7	85.3	77.2	86.5	74.7	80.6	74.7	80.2
Unemployed	13.3	14.7	12.0	13.5	18.0	19.4	18.5	19.8
Not in the labor force	10.0	------	10.7	------	7.3	------	6.8	------

Table E-3.—Rate of Employment of Persons in the Labor Force Completing MDTA Institutional Training Courses for Selected Trainee Characteristics

[Projects ended during calendar year 1964]

Characteristics	Number of completions in the labor force	Completions employed				
		Total	Male	Female	White	Nonwhite
Total:						
Number	[1] 31,030	[2] 25,040	13,549	11,491	17,636	5,754
Percent	100.0	80.7	82.5	78.7	83.9	72.7
Age: *Percent*						
Under 19 years	3,097	80.3	81.6	79.4	84.6	68.4
19–21 years	6,565	80.5	83.2	77.3	85.2	71.3
22–44 years	17,331	81.6	83.5	79.3	84.6	74.8
45 and over	4,037	77.5	76.9	77.6	79.0	63.7
Family status:						
Head of family or household	16,594	80.8	83.0	75.9	83.8	72.8
Other	14,132	80.6	81.2	80.2	84.0	72.5
Not reported	304	(237)	(121)	(116)	(165)	(61)
Highest grade completed:						
Less than 8th grade	1,926	72.7	79.0	54.4	74.0	62.8
8th grade	2,313	74.6	76.3	70.4	78.1	62.8
9th to 11th grade	8,684	77.1	78.8	74.8	81.4	68.7
12th grade	15,411	84.5	87.1	82.2	87.0	77.4
More than 12th grade	2,423	82.3	83.6	81.3	84.9	76.1
Not reported	273	(209)	(109)	(100)	(139)	(52)
Wage earner status:						
Primary	18,050	81.1	83.0	77.0	83.8	73.5
Other	12,236	80.3	81.0	80.0	84.1	71.5
Not reported	744	(588)	(316)	(272)	(407)	(145)
Employment status prior to enrollment:						
Unemployed	26,929	79.5	80.9	78.1	82.8	71.5
Under 5 weeks	7,726	83.9	85.6	81.5	86.4	76.6
5 to 14 weeks	6,388	81.9	82.7	80.6	84.8	74.2
15 to 26 weeks	3,791	80.3	81.6	78.6	84.6	70.5
27 to 52 weeks	3,145	75.1	75.8	74.4	78.9	67.8
Over 52 weeks	5,879	73.0	67.7	75.1	76.4	66.1
Family farmworker	1,024	92.6	94.0	71.9	93.0	84.8
Reentrant to labor force	70	74.3	25.0	77.3	73.8	70.6
Underemployed	2,451	89.6	91.6	87.1	92.4	83.0
Not reported	556	(434)	(221)	(213)	(294)	(110)

[1] Includes 2,087 for whom race was not obtained.

[2] Includes 1,650 for whom race was not obtained.

NOTE.—"Not reported" excluded from percentages. Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table E-4.—Rate of Employment of Persons in the Labor Force Completing MDTA Institutional Training Courses by Training Occupation

[Projects ended during calendar year 1964]

Occupational group and selected occupations	Number of completions in the labor force	Percent of completions employed				
		Total	Male	Female	White	Nonwhite
Total	[1] 31,030	[2] 80.7	82.5	78.7	83.9	72.7
Semiprofessional, technical, managerial	2,817	94.4	93.4	95.0	94.2	96.3
Draftsman	357	94.1	94.3	83.3	95.2	76.5
Licensed practical nurse	1,514	96.0	96.3	96.0	96.0	97.2
Clerical and sales	7,372	77.7	79.2	77.5	81.3	68.7
General office clerk	711	76.2	80.0	76.1	78.5	67.4
Stenographer	2,476	82.1	80.9	82.2	85.0	72.6
Clerk-typist, typist	1,945	78.0	79.1	77.8	81.3	71.4
Service	5,413	78.3	76.9	78.7	81.5	75.1
Cook	174	51.1	80.0	46.3	70.2	43.9
Nurse aide and ward attendant	2,792	82.6	79.4	82.8	85.2	80.7
Agriculture	1,427	86.8	86.8	83.3	86.5	80.0
Skilled	8,533	82.6	83.0	71.3	85.1	73.0
Welder	1,721	80.8	80.8	80.0	83.3	71.3
Auto mechanic	1,450	88.3	88.3	50.0	90.0	78.5
Auto body repairman	789	86.1	86.1	- -	87.1	82.6
Semiskilled	5,192	76.3	79.9	69.3	81.0	64.9
General machine operator	1,570	86.5	86.5	100.0	88.7	72.6
Electronic assembler	174	90.2	95.7	89.4	91.2	86.3
Other [3]	276	62.7	61.3	65.9	63.8	60.9

[1] Includes 2,087 for whom race was not obtained.

[2] Includes 1,650 for whom race was not obtained.

[3] Includes pretraining courses and DOT code not reported.

NOTE.—Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table E-5.—Post Training Earnings and Training Occupation of Employed MDTA "Graduates"

[Projects ended during calendar year 1964]

Employed graduates	Total	Male	Female	White	Non-white
Number reporting earnings	[1] 22,652	11,800	10,852	15,984	5,314
Percent earnings:					
$0.50-$1.14	11.5	7.6	15.8	8.5	19.2
$1.15-$1.49	27.1	17.3	37.6	25.6	30.8
$1.50-$1.99	32.1	29.5	35.0	32.8	31.2
$2.00-$2.99	24.5	36.8	11.2	27.5	16.7
$3.00 and over	4.7	8.7	.4	5.6	2.1
Number employed	[2] 25,040	13,549	11,491	17,636	5,754
Percent employed:					
Semiprofessional, technical, and managerial	10.7	7.9	13.9	11.7	8.0
Clerical and sales	22.9	4.1	45.1	23.2	22.8
Service	16.9	7.4	28.1	12.4	29.8
Agriculture	4.9	9.1	(*)	4.3	4.1
Skilled	28.1	50.6	1.6	31.5	19.0
Semiskilled	15.8	20.1	10.8	16.4	14.9
Other [3]	.7	.9	.5	.5	1.4

[1] Includes 1,354 for whom race was not obtained.

[2] Includes 1,650 for whom race was not obtained.

[3] Includes pretraining courses and DOT code not reported.

* Less than 0.1 percent.

NOTE.—Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table E-6.—Persons Leaving the Labor Force After Completion of Training

[Projects ended during calendar year 1964]

Occupational group	Total completions	No longer in labor force	Percent			
			Total completions	Left labor force	Total completions	Left labor force
Total	[1] 40,066	[2] 2,642	100.0	100.0	100.0	6.6
Semiprofessional, technical, managerial	3,331	213	8.3	8.1	100.0	6.4
Clerical and sales	9,665	944	24.1	35.7	100.0	9.8
Service	7,281	701	18.2	26.5	100.0	9.6
Agriculture	1,762	49	4.4	1.9	100.0	2.8
Skilled	10,877	354	27.1	13.4	100.0	3.3
Semiskilled	6,782	349	16.9	13.2	100.0	5.1
Other [3]	368	32	.9	1.2	100.0	8.7
Male	21,110	709	52.7	26.8	100.0	3.4
Female	18,956	1,933	47.3	73.2	100.0	10.2
White	26,456	1,823	70.9	74.1	100.0	6.9
Nonwhite	10,871	636	29.1	25.9	100.0	5.9

[1] Includes 6,394 for whom labor force status was not reported and 2,738 for whom race was not obtained.

[2] Includes 183 for whom race was not obtained.

[3] Includes pretraining courses and DOT code not reported.

Table E-7.—Occupation of Training of Person Leaving the Labor Force After Completion of Training and Reason Given for Leaving

[Projects ended during calendar year 1964]

Trainees leaving labor force	Total	Male	Female	White	Non-white
Total:					
Number	[1] 2,642	709	1,933	1,823	636
Percent	100.0	26.8	73.2	74.1	25.9
Percent					
Occupational group:					
Semiprofessional, technical, managerial	8.1	7.6	8.2	9.5	3.8
Clerical and sales	35.7	6.8	46.4	37.4	33.6
Service	26.5	8.3	33.2	23.3	34.6
Agriculture	1.9	6.9	--	2.0	1.3
Skilled	13.4	45.8	1.5	14.5	9.9
Semiskilled	13.2	23.1	9.6	12.5	14.6
Other [2]	1.2	1.4	1.1	.9	2.2
Reason given for leaving:					
Keeping house	30.0	1.1	40.6	32.0	24.8
In school	11.8	19.5	9.1	11.4	13.1
Illness	23.4	27.2	21.9	23.6	22.8
Other	34.8	52.2	28.4	33.0	39.3

[1] Includes 183 for whom race was not obtained.

[2] Includes pretraining courses and DOT code not reported.

Table E-8.—Training Occupation of MDTA Graduates by State

[Report processed as of Sept. 1, 1965]

	Total number graduates	Percents						
		Semiprof., technical, managerial	Clerical and sales	Services	Agriculture	Skilled	Semiskilled	Other [1]
Total graduates	77,479	6.9	23.8	16.9	4.4	27.0	20.3	0.8
Alabama	1,614	5.3	14.4	17.9	- -	15.9	46.5	- -
Alaska	357	19.9	18.8	17.9	- -	29.1	14.3	- -
Arizona	721	8.3	13.5	18.6	9.4	11.2	39.0	- -
Arkansas	587	22.3	24.4	- -	21.8	29.3	2.2	- -
California	7,891	8.7	43.2	25.4	10.5	5.2	7.0	- -
Colorado	707	14.7	37.8	9.3	- -	14.3	23.9	- -
Connecticut	2,153	2.0	27.9	11.2	- -	26.3	32.7	- -
Delaware	242	6.6	3.7	14.0	23.6	1.7	9.1	41.3
District of Columbia	778	8.2	38.7	18.3	- -	12.7	22.1	- -
Florida	1,523	- -	33.6	29.0	- -	20.8	16.6	- -
Georgia	461	3.0	25.2	12.1	1.7	43.0	15.4	- -
Guam	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Hawaii	221	- -	41.6	20.8	- -	6.3	31.2	- -
Idaho	189	39.2	41.8	- -	13.8	1.6	3.7	- -
Illinois	2,160	13.7	16.8	22.4	- -	29.4	17.8	- -
Indiana	1,661	9.2	14.1	24.4	.1	40.4	10.2	1.5
Iowa	749	7.1	28.7	4.9	6.3	43.5	9.5	- -
Kansas	712	15.0	20.1	27.0	1.7	26.0	10.3	- -
Kentucky	2,440	4.5	37.8	13.4	8.1	28.3	7.8	- -
Louisiana	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Maine	1,488	3.4	9.5	8.3	- -	44.0	28.1	6.7
Maryland	542	17.7	10.7	27.5	- -	27.1	16.6	.4
Massachusetts	1,778	1.7	26.5	4.6	.8	35.8	30.5	- -
Michigan	3,741	8.3	10.4	28.3	.2	31.1	21.8	- -
Minnesota	714	8.7	25.2	7.3	2.0	34.9	22.0	- -
Mississippi	98	- -	- -	24.5	- -	33.7	41.8	- -
Missouri	3,029	5.3	28.3	16.8	5.8	26.6	13.5	3.7
Montana	146	28.8	- -	9.6	- -	61.6	- -	- -
Nebraska	429	6.8	51.7	6.3	- -	25.6	2.6	7.0
Nevada	458	17.5	46.7	15.5	2.4	16.6	1.3	- -
New Hampshire	874	- -	19.9	- -	- -	5.7	74.4	- -
New Jersey	2,065	6.6	25.7	13.4	- -	27.4	26.9	- -
New Mexico	618	10.5	14.6	42.1	4.7	21.2	7.0	- -
New York	6,397	11.4	25.5	16.4	- -	26.3	19.8	0.6
North Carolina	1,062	2.7	17.7	24.5	2.4	23.2	29.5	- -
North Dakota	290	24.8	29.3	7.2	4.5	16.9	16.9	.3
Ohio	4,221	8.0	28.6	17.6	5.4	25.4	14.7	.3
Oklahoma	1,406	4.6	24.0	3.6	- -	32.0	32.1	3.7
Oregon	774	12.9	22.0	36.6	16.4	2.3	9.7	.1
Pennsylvania	4,221	7.4	11.8	16.0	- -	38.6	25.4	.8
Puerto Rico	2,683	3.5	8.4	4.4	30.7	44.2	8.6	- -
Rhode Island	382	9.2	7.1	9.9	- -	34.6	39.3	- -
South Carolina	2,342	.8	4.3	29.7	11.9	24.0	29.2	- -
South Dakota	76	- -	17.1	1.3	- -	81.6	- -	- -
Tennessee	1,871	4.4	15.0	12.8	1.0	36.4	25.1	5.2
Texas	2,798	1.4	35.9	9.0	2.4	47.0	4.3	- -
Utah	589	10.4	32.3	- -	2.7	54.7	- -	- -
Vermont	383	1.8	6.8	27.4	13.6	44.9	5.5	- -
Virgin Islands	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Virginia	1,728	- -	31.3	23.4	1.6	28.1	13.9	1.7
Washington	2,530	7.4	15.0	4.1	1.1	3.7	68.7	- -
West Virginia	1,138	1.8	21.8	17.0	5.4	35.7	17.0	1.3
Wisconsin	1,293	.2	7.9	12.8	- -	57.8	21.3	- -
Wyoming	149	7.4	36.9	33.6	- -	22.1	- -	- -

[1] Includes preapprentice occupations, multioccupation projects and no DOT code reported.

NOTE.—Percents may not add to 100.0 due to rounding.

Table F-1.—Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects by Type of County of Residence

[Calendar year 1965]

Characteristics	County of trainee residence			
	Urban		Rural	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total (88,985)	71, 757	80. 6	17, 228	19. 4
Sex:				
Male	40, 668	56. 7	11, 896	69. 1
Female	31, 089	43. 3	5, 332	30. 9
Race:				
White	41, 328	62. 6	13, 429	83. 6
Nonwhite	24, 656	37. 3	2, 641	16. 4
Not obtained	5, 773	(5, 773)	1, 158	(1, 158)
Family status:				
Head of family or household	34, 985	49. 1	9, 439	55. 1
Other	36, 284	50. 9	7, 680	44. 9
Not reported	488	(488)	109	(109)
Age:				
Under 19 years	13, 595	18. 9	3, 212	18. 6
19 to 21 years	17, 513	24. 4	3, 621	21. 0
22 to 34 years	23, 383	32. 6	6, 048	35. 1
35 to 44 years	10, 526	14. 7	2, 466	14. 3
45 years and over	6, 740	9. 4	1, 881	10. 9
Highest grade completed:				
Less than 8th grade	3, 834	5. 4	1, 503	8. 8
8th grade	6, 654	9. 4	2, 030	11. 8
9th to 11th grade	25, 486	35. 8	4, 804	28. 0
12th grade	30, 475	42. 8	8, 071	47. 1
More than 12th grade	4, 685	6. 6	730	4. 3
Not reported	623	(623)	90	(90)
Years of gainful employment:				
Under 3 years	31, 891	45. 1	6, 450	37. 9
3 to 9 years	24, 038	34. 0	6, 435	37. 9
10 years or more	14, 861	21. 0	4, 115	24. 2
Not reported	967	(967)	228	(228)
Emp. status prior to enrollment:				
Unemployed	61, 086	87. 1	14, 322	85. 6
Under 5 weeks	19, 267	27. 5	5, 446	32. 5
5 to 14 weeks	14, 084	20. 1	3, 447	20. 6
15 to 26 weeks	8, 102	11. 5	1, 739	10. 4
27 to 52 weeks	6, 924	9. 9	1, 433	8. 6
Over 52 weeks	12, 709	18. 1	2, 257	13. 5
Family farm worker	118	. 2	746	4. 5
Reentrant to labor force	2, 993	4. 3	390	2. 3
Underemployed	5, 957	8. 5	1, 279	7. 6
Not reported	1, 603	(1, 603)	491	(491)

Not reported excluded from percentages.

NOTE.—Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table F-2.—Age of Trainee by Year of School Completed by Type of County of Residence

[Calendar year 1965]

	Total	Age			
		Under 19	19-21	22-44	45 and over
Urban					
Education:					
Total	71, 757	13, 595	17, 513	33, 909	6, 740
Percent	100. 0	18. 9	24. 4	47. 3	9. 4
Highest grade completed:					
Less than 8th grade	5. 4	6. 0	3. 1	5. 0	11. 8
8th grade	9. 4	13. 3	7. 1	8. 0	14. 3
9th to 11th grade	35. 8	40. 8	39. 5	33. 8	26. 4
12th grade	42. 8	39. 2	45. 9	44. 2	35. 3
More than 12th grade	6. 6	. 6	4. 5	9. 0	12. 2
Not reported	(623)	(117)	(168)	(275)	(63)
Rural					
Education:					
Total	17, 228	3, 212	3, 621	8, 514	1, 881
Percent	100. 0	18. 6	21. 0	49. 4	10. 9
Highest grade completed:					
Less than 8th grade	8. 8	4. 9	4. 8	9. 2	21. 1
8th grade	11. 8	6. 9	7. 4	13. 6	20. 8
9th to 11th grade	28. 0	22. 6	28. 6	31. 0	22. 6
12th grade	47. 1	65. 0	54. 3	41. 5	28. 2
More than 12th grade	4. 3	. 6	5. 0	4. 7	7. 2
Not reported	(90)	(6)	(26)	(55)	(3)

NOTE.—Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

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